

# The Social Studies

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## Contents

Post-War Compulsory Military Training	Thomas Woody	191
History in War Time Britain	Daniel C. Knowlton	196
The Liberal Education of a Medieval Guildsman	Sister M. Armelia	200
Revised Historical Viewpoints	Ralph B. Guinness	201
Why Juvenile Delinquency?—Let's Be Objective	Fred E. Harris	204
Drug Stores of Colonial Days	Katharine L. Biehl	206
War and the Balance of Power in Europe	R. E. Swindler	208
Sidelights Concerning Colonial Education	Allan M. Pitkanen	210
French Indo-China	John R. Craf	213
Implications of Children's Concepts of Time and Space	Ralph C. Preston	218
The Personnel of a State Congressional Delegation: Illinois	L. Ethan Ellis	220
Visual and Other Aids	Maurice P. Hunt	224
News and Comment	Morris Wolf	226
Book Reviews and Book Notes	Richard H. McFeely	231
Current Publications Received		236

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# The Social Studies

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## Post-War Compulsory Military Training

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Amid the storm and stress of war and its concomitant emotions, citizens of the United States are being urged to adopt post-war compulsory military training. We should approve of it now, it is said, because, after the war, Americans may become apathetic, even hostile, towards such a measure of military preparedness, out of keeping with their tradition. The Gurney-Wadsworth bill (S. 701; H.R. 1806, February 11, 1943), recently under consideration by the Military Affairs Committee of the houses of Congress, proposed one year of naval or military service at age 18, or within three years following, and enrollment as a reserve for four years, such training to begin six months after the war, or earlier if Congress so decides. The May bill (H.R. 3947, January 11, 1944) would have required military or naval service of "every able-bodied male citizen" and all male resident aliens at age 17, or at completion of high school, whichever comes first, and reserve enrollment for eight years with refresher periods of training, the same to be operative as soon as the present Selective Service Act ends. A similar bill (H.R. 515, January 3, 1945) is now before the 79th Congress.

Another measure is being prepared by the House Committee on Post War Military Policy (authorized, March 28, 1944, by H.R. 465), charged with assembling "information, plans, and suggestions" relative to military requirements of the United States after

the war. Fourteen of the twenty-three members of the Committee, which is under the chairmanship of C. A. Woodrum, are from the committees on military and naval affairs. What the Committee's proposals will be is uncertain, but they will probably reflect the wishes of Army and Navy leaders who have long favored and planned for universal conscription.

What reasons are brought forward to support the proposed legislation? Prevention of war and preparation for it, improvement of health, perfection of citizenship, its bearing on our economy in a number of ways, and its democratic character are generally set down to the credit of military training in peacetime. Are these claims valid?

Back of the proposals for universal training is the *idée fixe* that military preparedness prevents wars, and lack of it leads to them. Representative May's formula declares: "... the experiences of the present conclusively establish that the lack of such a system results in unnecessary wars, the needless sacrifice of human life, the dissipation of the national wealth, and useless disruption of the social and economic fabric of the Nation, and causes international discord and interracial misunderstandings." The Citizens' Committee for Universal Military Training argues to the same effect: "... international agreements, unsupported by established military policy, have invariably failed." The "military defenses" of the United States have always been set up "too late to



prevent war." "We wanted peace in 1917 and again in 1939," says another advocate, "but each time we were unprepared and so we had war."

The *Philadelphia Record* wants compulsory training as "an insurance policy for peace." President Seymour of Yale declares that, if we had had compulsory military training, as Washington and Knox once wished, "we should not have had to undergo the holocaust of the past five years. By means of such a system the Swiss democracy has maintained her freedom in peace." Thirty-one per cent of those polled by the National Opinion Research Center believe that wars would be less likely if we and other nations required universal military training.

Does the history of national compulsory military training lend any weight to such claims? France established the pattern of compulsory service (1793, 1798); Prussia followed suit (1806), and the German Empire pursued the conscriptive training policy after 1871. In neither case has universal training for war prevented its advent. A vast conscript army gave Napoleon power for his drive to conquer Europe, but when other nations adopted the same method, the brief initial advantage to the innovator was neutralized. Even the prodigious preparations of France, both by training forces and by building the Maginot Line, neither secured her from attack nor made her strong in resistance.

The Soviet Union's extensive, peace-time military training did not preserve her against attack. Her sturdy resistance of invasion, and ultimate success in driving invaders out owes much, perhaps more, to her internal unity, mass resistance, singleness of purpose and leadership, economy of means, elimination of private profit, territorial factors, and the like. If these great powers that had compulsory training, and yet were attacked in spite of it, had required a year or two more of it, would that have preserved them from war? Would England have been spared, if she had instituted universal military training after World War I? If the United States had adopted such a program in 1919, would it have kept her out of this war? Would it have speeded her entry into it? As for smaller states, did compulsory training save Belgium, the Netherlands, Poland, Italy, Finland, Norway, Czechoslovakia? If they had had more training, would that have prevented war's advent? Europe's sad history for 150 years suggests that those who want to institute compulsory military service in the United States should find a sounder argument than that such a program will prevent wars, or that it will win them.

Far from preventing our engagement in a third world war, the immediate adoption of post-war, military conscription by the United States might be an important factor in bringing it to pass. When the war ends, we shall have 12,000,000 or more trained men.

Add to these a million and a quarter each year, and keep up armaments in proportion (for no one thinks trained men would suffice without up-to-the-minute equipment), and what nation would not have good reason to fear our strength? Instead of proving our intention to back up commitments that may be made in respect to a United Nations' organization for security, universal peace-time conscription might be viewed as a danger to such a system—an evidence that we wished to be strong enough to repudiate any proposed settlement of disputes not to our liking.

With or without a United Nations' security system, what effect might one expect our immediate adoption of peace-time conscription to have on our "Good Neighbors" to the South; and on Canada which even in wartime has striven to avoid conscription for overseas service? Latin Americans have not forgotten the "Colossus of the North," despite the era of "good neighborliness." Perhaps Argentina keeps old memories green. What might they not fairly fear if the Colossus, heretofore unpretentious in respect to military might, were to put on her whole armour? If rich and powerful Germany and France, with the greatest compulsory training system on the continent of Europe, have for a century and a half been the matrix of world wars, from which their smaller neighbors were unable to isolate themselves, what may reasonably be expected if the richest nation in the Western world embarks on a program of universal preparation for war?

A choice is to be made. We should make no mistake; universal military training is preparation for war, not peace. It is proposed as a measure of defense. Against whom? Germany's military power is to be totally destroyed, and Japan is to be reduced to the status of 1896. So our leaders have assured us; and we have given them unstinted backing in men and materials to fulfill their promises. Prostrate Germany and Japan cannot be the dangers against which we need to prepare by peace-time conscriptive service. The only great armed nations remaining are Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and China—our allies who have vowed with us to establish collective security. Adoption of universal conscriptive training now would appear to be an admission of defeat of collective security before we have risked anything in its behalf. Such a program makes more sense as a foundation for national isolationism and expanding imperialism than it does for international cooperation. Congressman John M. Costello defends it frankly as our "big stick," which "we can present to the world . . . to preserve law and order." The world's peoples may well tremble, if each policeman decides how big a club he will carry.

A second argument for universal military training is that it will improve the nation's health. The Director of Selective Service reported, February 25,



1944, that over half of those registered failed to pass physical and mental tests. About four million have been classed 4F for various causes, approximately one-sixth of them for remediable defects. Obviously there is room for improvement. There is reason to doubt, however, whether compulsory military training is the best way to secure it. Such a program would take "able-bodied" youth about 18, test them thoroughly, fix their teeth, and remedy other deficiencies, as far as possible, feed and clothe them well, and give them plenty of exercise. Doubtless the group thus cared for would be ruddier, more rugged, slimmer, and straighter at the end of a year. But does any physician or physical training expert think that 18 or 19 is the optimum moment for initiation of a health regimen; or that, once properly conditioned, individuals will continue in good trim, even with occasional refresher courses? Obviously, many weaknesses, such as will be discovered at 18, should have been found and remedied long before 18. A large fraction of the rejections could have been prevented by early remedial measures. A year's regimentation of health, diet, and exercise cannot undo the effects of bad environment and habits of all the preceding years.

If we want a nation with good health (we need it, and should want it, whether for peace or for war), we shall clearly have to begin at a tenderer age than 18, taking care that children be properly fed and housed, be provided with ample facilities for recreation and physical training during the school years, and have medical attention whenever needed. I say children, not boys only. A nation cannot go far on one leg. For both boys and girls these facilities to promote health and physical fitness should be provided by the expansion of appropriate, civilian, community services, aided where necessary by state and federal subsidies.

Compulsory peace-time military training is also recommended, by many advocates, as a discipline for life and for democracy. It will teach us self-denial, they say, inculcate the ideas of democracy, impress a sense of our obligations to government, teach respect for authority and obedience to superiors, and will promote good relations generally between all citizens, if we are compelled to live and work together for a year under martial discipline. A Spartan training has often been admired by those who never lived under it. All of these are phases of citizenship training. That education for citizenship has long been one of the purposes of our general system of education, is well known; but military training, it is asserted, will add something not learned in schools and colleges. It should be noted, of course, that the legislation now being debated in Congress does not specify all these goals. The bills are designed simply to provide military training. The peripheral

values of such prescriptive service are read into it by some who are inclined to find a panacea in one bottle. Take it; it's good for whatever ails you! It is quite probable that if the proposal of compulsory service becomes law, its passage will owe much to pressure groups that anticipate results quite apart from military competence in defense of the United States.

That certain by-products will derive from compulsory military training of all male youth is accepted by those who oppose conscription, as well as by those who urge its adoption. The character traits developed in the army are looked upon with skepticism by many. Others are emphatically sure they do not want them. "Soldiering" is not a concept that arose from civil circles. Learning the "great army game," however useful in the army, is of dubious value in competitive life outside of it. Opponents object to the system also, precisely because the concomitants of universal military training are not serviceable to democracy but to totalitarianism of one form or another. A democracy may introduce, but it cannot long survive the militarism which universal conscriptive training nourishes and ultimately perfects.

A year of instant obedience to commands and indoctrination with ideas of government, at the hands of officers whose education is not primarily or broadly political and certainly not necessarily democratic, may well develop attitudes that are inimical to self-government. Sound knowledge of social, economic and political affairs, an open mind towards opinions of others, critical judgment, and independence of thinking and acting are indispensable to democracy. Individual thinking is the best antidote against mass thinking. Reason is the first and last defense against authoritarianism. Competent, independent thinking is not easily developed, even in institutions that are designed to promote it. Armies have never favored its encouragement. As Frederick the Great said: "If my soldiers would really think, not one would remain in the ranks." Mr. Bedinger, librarian at West Point, once declared that army training there sought to break "any attempt at self-expression" and "to destroy every trace of independent thinking."

Subservience to superiors and readiness for commands are valuable, indeed indispensable, to armed forces and to authoritarian governments. The discipline required in a democracy is self-discipline, however, not that of drill sergeants. By what logic should democratic, "peace-loving" Americans fight a half-trillion dollar war to break Nazism and Fascism, and then impose on their own sons the most conspicuous feature of the dictatorships of Germany and Italy? If there are really so many democratic values in universal military service, we have gone to a strange school and have paid a high tuition fee to discover them. That we did not need to go so far, or to such

teachers, for a militaristic interpretation of democracy, is shown by the United States War Department's *Training Manual, No. 2000-25*, used for some years after 1928, which described democracy as "communistic" towards property, leading to "mobocracy" and other undesirable features of government.

We shall choose. If the choice is universal military training, let it be made with our eyes open. Militarism can grow—in the United States as it has elsewhere. It has strong roots; only fertilizing and cultivation are needed to make it flourish. Men and money are its nourishment; training is its culture. We are apt to be deluded by an old, established notion, to the effect that certain peoples (Germans and Japanese) are innately warlike, born sons of Mars, far beyond all others. Such, too, were the early Romans, according to popular belief. Polybius, Cicero, Livy, Josephus, and others, however, though recognizing they were generally good material, stressed the excellence, thoroughness and strictness of their training that made them warlike and won wars. The ancient Romans, so competent modern scholars tell us, were once as peaceful as any other peasant farmers. Step by step, from small wars to greater ones, by hard training and diligent study of warfare, they gained a name for military prowess, such as the ancient world had never seen. Rome's army ultimately ruled the state, made and unmade emperors.

In line with this thinking (some nations warlike, others peace-loving) it is alleged by the advocates of universal military training, that such a system would be democratic, because the American people are so, and that it could not foster militarism here, though it has elsewhere. Our hearts are pure; they can't be changed by training! Such a view rests on an unsound, static interpretation of the nature of institutions. Institutions grow. A hundred years ago military training in schools was a distinct rarity in the United States. The Civil War saw it pushed forward rapidly. World War I, which was to "end all wars," almost brought us to the adoption of a universal, peace-time military training program in 1920. World War II has seemingly sold most citizens the system we fought two wars to destroy. Fortunately, the dead have no ears.

Post-war military training is also urged for economic reasons. A billion dollars a year (\$1,000 a head for 1,000,000 trainees), it is said, will be a most significant economy, for it must be compared with the cost of waging war. Take out this \$1,000,000,000 insurance premium and avoid war. Unhappily, the insurance salesman's arguments fall flat, since all the great nations for over a hundred years have been buying expensive policies and paying for wars besides.

The argument of economy has several other phases: it concerns the use of present camps, other

military establishments and trained personnel; it is proposed as a relief for post-war unemployment; and it will also be a boon as vocational preparation. In respect to the last, it is said, army training today is highly specialized, and a year of it will give trade training for jobs in later life, such as vocational schools cannot supply. Granting that some youths would certainly acquire new skills, it is doubtful, nevertheless, whether trade training gained in the army, whose primary goal would be mastery of military matters, would prove really adequate for the peace-time employments of more than a few. The year's interruption of normal life at 18 would certainly postpone for many the choice of occupation, or profession, and preparation therefor. However consequential or inconsequential such interruption and delay might prove to be, it seems most probable that youths can be prepared best for peace-time employments by vocational institutions, which have long been serving this purpose—and which can be modified to meet new demands whenever they arise. Military camps for vocational training seem, indeed, to be the longer road home, and not by any means the less expensive.

The President spoke hopefully of the camps and war plants that have cost us millions. Many others have stressed the economy of using rather than destroying them. Everyone knows well what they cost. Moreover, we shall have ready at hand a vast number of officers already in service, who could take charge of training and never have to doff their uniforms. Of course, if we were to decide that we wish to militarize the nation, it would be economical to proceed at once to utilize both material facilities and men. But this would be penny-wise, pound-foolish economy. Everybody knows that expenses for a universal military training program would keep mounting. The first billion dollars or so does not tell the tale. In brief, economy is not the real issue. What is to be decided is not whether we should save a few millions by putting all male youth into army camps that stand ready to receive them, but whether we want the social and political consequences which throughout history have flowed from universal militarization.

Universal conscript training for a year has been proffered as a remedy for unemployment. When 12,000,000 service men and other millions of men and women now engaged in our prodigiously expanded war plants return to the peace-time employment market, the competition for jobs will be acute. To these must be added the million and more of young people who normally want a job as the 'teen age draws to a close. A million and a quarter of young men, taken from the market about 18, would relieve the pressure of competition. And if one were to demobilize the men now in service very slowly, since, as General Hershey once said; "We can keep



people in the army about as cheaply as we could create an agency for them when they are out," the pressure could be reduced still more.

Such a pill for unemployment would probably gag many. Even if swallowed, it could not do much good. Anyway, if we wish to relieve unemployment by keeping every male youth a year longer at school, the whole problem of desirable variations of that schooling should be examined at once, rather than stretch 1,250,000 on a Procrustean bed, never designed for education. Here again, obviously, we should keep our eye on the ball. Military training is really designed for military, not economic, ends. To delude ourselves that it will solve unemployment problems is the grossest error.

Unemployment is a major malady of modern industrial society, as now constituted. If we want to cure it, let's stay at home and study it, rather than go visiting Mars. We had the illness long before the war. Neither the nursing care of apple vendors nor the pills of Dr. New Deal did more than dull the pain. Only the peace-time draft before the war, full mobilization of armed forces after Pearl Harbor, and turning industrial plants to making the sinews of war, at last absorbed the unemployed. When the war ends, the illness promises to flare up immediately, and with complications previously unknown. Post-war conscription of a million young men each year would, at the very best, be a slight palliative.

Democracy must discover the true roots of this economic paralysis and grub them out, if it is to endure. Pruning some of the tangled branches by induction into the army is of no avail. If it drains some temporarily from the labor market, it prepares them for a renewed destructive process—which it cannot prevent and may encourage—the ultimate consequence of which is still greater poverty and unemployment. Hitler promised to eliminate unemployment. He did so by this self-same means, putting men into military service and setting industry to the production of the materials of war. We, too, can keep youth and adults from begging on the street by putting them at this "busy work," but who can show that the remedy is not worse than the disease? What does it profit men to work so hard, and in the end clip the coupons of impoverishment? Aristotle observed truly that man labors that he may have leisure, and through leisure the good life, happiness. Employments that promise no leisure, but ever-increasing burdens of labor and of debt, lead not to the good life but to slavery.

In defense of the present proposals it is sometimes asserted that compulsory training is in harmony with American tradition. The argument of "harmony," however, is obviously weak. Washington and Knox did recommend a compulsory system, to be sure, but it was turned down by Congress, and the principle

has been shunned consistently by the American people. The most conspicuous "harmony" discernible is that which exists between the principles of totalitarianism and universal, compulsory military service. Without total conscriptive service Hitler and Mussolini would have been powerless to throw the world into chaos.

It is argued, furthermore, that conscription is the embodiment of liberal democratic principles, even though American citizens have been loath to accept the practice. Principle and practice may be out of harmony, certainly. Let us examine the principle, without regard to past or present modes of practice. Democratic liberalism rests on a number of important concepts; without them it loses that which sets it off from other political systems. Freedom of religion, of thought, of speech, of assembly, and of publication lie at its very foundation. Considered from the standpoint of numbers, democracy is inclusive of all, regardless of race and sex. This mass aspect of democracy is often uppermost in present-day thought and utterance; and it is very important, certainly; for, not long ago, Negroes and women were not recognized as politically competent. But, it must not be forgotten, the principle of numerical inclusiveness cannot be permitted to obscure, or negate, those principles pertaining to freedom of the mind. Certain great totalitarian states are democratic, in so far as numerical inclusiveness is concerned. But no one thinks they are democracies in any general sense, just because of a counting of noses. If one were to add to their mass character the principles of freedom of religion, speech, assembly, publication and so on, they would cease to seem a threat to democratic liberalism in the western world.

Since democracy is dependent on these liberties, if the element of inclusiveness as to numbers and the voice of the majority be carried to the extreme point of denying them, the result is tyranny, not democracy. Certain limitations on freedom are inimical to human beings, regardless of whether they are imposed by one, the few, or the many. Herbert Spencer put the matter precisely: "If men use their liberty in such a way as to surrender their liberty, are they thereafter any the less slaves? If people by a *plebiscite* elect a man despot over them, do they remain free because the despotism was of their own making?" Mill noted, long ago, the tendency of modern states "to stretch unduly the power of society over the individual, both by the force of opinion and even by that of legislation." The evil, he thought, was not one likely to decline but would grow to more formidable proportions.

The disposition, whether on the part of one or of the majority, to impose judgment on others is so strong in human nature that it is scarcely restrained by anything save lack of power. This "tyranny of



the majority," whether exercised in formal or informal fashion, may issue "wrong mandates instead of right," may interfere "in things with which it ought not to meddle," and may even enslave "the soul itself." Against this, Mill declared, protection is needed. "There is a limit to the legitimate interference of collective opinion with individual independence; and to find that limit, and maintain it against encroachment, is as indispensable to a good condition of human affairs, as protection against political despotism."

Mill thought this general proposition not likely to be contested in his day, but he understood clearly that on the "practical question, where to place the limit," little or nothing had been done. If he were alive today, he would see that throughout a large part of the world even the general principle is denied. National systems of education in many lands have now to an extraordinary degree established that "despotism over the mind, leading by natural tendency to one over the body," which he deplored. In the rigor and completeness of its dominion over the mind and body of man, there is no phase of present-day education that quite equals universal, compulsory military service and training. Herein it comes at last, in many instances, to the enslavement "of the soul itself." In this form, its meaning can be read in the discriminations and punishments meted out to religious or philosophical objectors to military principles and practices. Apart from this, once in the military forces, authorities are in agreement as to the bearing of training on freedom of thinking.

A "receptive mood" and "immediate obedience" are the results sought at West Point, says R. C. Richardson. "Unconditional blind obedience" was one of the chief supports of the German army. Army discipline, said Major-General J. F. O'Ryan, must be so perfect that it produces "an obedience so prompt and unquestioned that the act is performed subconsciously." Spencer, speaking of the despotism of compulsory military training on the continent of Europe, remarked: "The sphere of individual will is

such only as is allowed by the will of the superior. Breaches of subordination are, according to their gravity, dealt with by deprivation of leave, extra drill, imprisonment, flogging, and, in the last resort, shooting."

In the last analysis the right judgment concerning universal, compulsory military training must be in harmony with sound, democratic principles, and in the light of what it promises respecting human liberty and justice. The advancement of civilization is measured in terms of the growth of liberty of mind. Anything that will operate more and more to restrict it, is a step downward. Military despotism over the masses, accomplished by the universal principle, led to the establishment of despotism over the schools in Napoleon's day. "It was impossible," said Taine, "for the essentially military character of Napoleon not to be marked in his work" in education. "The University, in fact, was organized like a regiment." All initiative and inventiveness were abolished. De Lanneau declared: "I am nothing but a sergeant-major of languid and mangled classes . . . to the tap of a drum and under military colors." The sharp restriction of the freedom of schools in Germany, under the Kaiser and under Hitler, and in Italy under Fascism, was contingent upon the absolute power of the state—a power resting on military force.

So it was with certain military despotisms of antiquity. It seems wishful thinking, indeed, to fancy that it will not become so in those that some are intent on building for tomorrow. Those who deal with returning veterans have often expressed regret that so many of the men seem no longer able to think for themselves; they expect to be told what to do. One may regret this result of army discipline, but no one can complain of it. Men do not gather grapes from thorns, or figs from thistles. A nation that regiments its young men of every generation in such habits of instant compliance with orders, is doing the best it can to make them the ready servants of another's will.

## History in War Time Britain

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There are several reasons why a brief survey of recent developments in England as they affect the study and teaching of history may prove of interest to members of the guild in this country. This war, as was true of World War I, has directed attention on both sides of the water to the apparent failure of his-

tory to function as it should either in the classroom or in the world outside. On this side of the water the problem is complicated by the tendency to merge so completely instruction in this field with that of the other social sciences, in a comprehensive social studies program, that it has become increasingly difficult to

appraise the results of such study and instruction, and so effect desirable changes. Some of the thinking in England reflects an interest in the "social studies" but these usually refer to civics and current affairs (or current events as they are better known here). They are usually placed in a different category from geography and history.

Such changes as have recently been proposed in England center rather about these two subjects, and particularly about history. As one writer puts it: "Now is the time to recognize the important part which history teaching plays in the nation. Hitler grasped that fact, and his false teaching is bearing its evil fruit. It is a warning not to be lightly disregarded if there is to be a better understanding between the nations of the world."<sup>1</sup>

It should also be pointed out that the nation-wide changes outlined in the *White Paper on Educational Reconstruction*, July 1, 1943, and embodied in an Education Bill now before Parliament have given rise to several special reports such as *The Public Schools and the General Educational System* and *Curriculum and Examinations in Secondary Schools*. These have naturally had the effect of directing the attention of those interested in the various subjects to their own fields, especially as they are likely to be influenced by the proposed changes.

The report on examinations (known as the *Norwood Report*) has led Mr. Toyne of the Historical Association to direct attention to its implications as to the content of the *School Syllabus in History*, as the *Norwood Report* proposes the abolition of the school certificate, thus conferring "greater freedom in the framing of the *Syllabus* and in consequence, throwing far greater responsibility on the headmaster and his staff," to quote Mr. Toyne.

The *Syllabus* is so much the apparent center of interest in England that the Historical Association arranged for a Select Committee to report on "The Principles on which a History Syllabus should be Planned," and the committee circulated a preliminary report of twenty-four pages in April, 1943. This has now appeared in its final form as Association Pamphlet, No. 128 (1944).

In Part I, the nature of history is briefly analyzed, and the aims and problems of teaching history, together with the conditions essential for success, are followed by the plan of the syllabus, which includes its content, arrangement, training in historical method and thinking, and supplementary courses. These last are identified as "Civics" and "Current Affairs," and give rise to some very pertinent observations such as:

Current Affairs are in their very nature too haphazard to be acceptable as the basis of even

part of what should be an orderly and coherent planned course.

The value of Civics . . . depends entirely on how it is treated. . . . It is nevertheless questionable whether it should form part of the history course for pupils under 16. . . . Civics in the sense of citizenship, *morale sociale*, cannot be taught in set lessons any more than any other part of morality.

Part II is in the nature of a summary which includes a statement of principles and some recommendations based on these principles. The nature of history is set forth in the following seven principles:

1. "History is primarily a record . . . but it is also a study of processes, of 'the way things grow.'"
2. "The record must be as true . . . as is possible."
3. "The fundamental relation between the events recorded is a time one, so the record must have both continuity and unity."
4. "Events are also related through their connection with, and influence on conditions—social, and economic, cultural, and intellectual—and on institutions."
5. It is the influence of events on conditions and institutions, especially on those of our own time, that determine their relative importance for us.
6. The events selected for study have to be arranged under topics.
7. All the questions which can be asked of the past can be grouped under four questions leading to a fifth:
  - (a) How did men learn to live? or How did civilization arise and develop?
  - (b) How did men come to live where they do? or How was the political map of the world made?
  - (c) How have men learned to live together? or How did the political and social institutions and the economic organization of peoples grow up?
  - (d) How have men learned to think about themselves and the world? or How did religion and philosophy, mathematics and science, art and literature grow up?
  - (e) How and why did men's relations with one another at home and abroad change and so bring about the events recorded in history?

"The last is the question which history sets out to answer, and value for answering it must be the final test for the selection of facts for inclusion in a history syllabus."

Two major purposes are emphasized in teaching: the educational and the instructional. The educational

<sup>1</sup> S. M. Toyne, in *History*, March, 1944.

objective sought is threefold: (1) to have pupils think accurately about human affairs; (2) to develop in them some sense of the relativity of truth, some insight into the springs of human action, and some notion of the responsibility and duty laid on men and women as members of society; and (3) to aid in individual character training. The instructional objectives are: (1) to acquire useful or interesting information about the past, directing attention to happenings that have influenced progress and man's relations to his fellow men; and (2) to train the student so as to enable him to acquire for himself new knowledge about the past, then correlate it with what he already knows, and interpret it carefully and without bias.

A whole section is devoted to the principles involved in adjusting history to the age and capacity of the pupil.

Recommendations based on these principles, a bare two pages and a half, cover what ought to go into the syllabus in the way of content, the arrangement and presentation of material, and training in historical method and thinking.

The course for pupils under 11 should be regarded as "a Preparatory Course" in every sense, that for pupils of 11 to 16, should be "one of European History expanding into World History with constant reference to and illustration from English or rather British History, as being in a special sense that of the pupil's own past." There should also be a special subject or period for detailed study. This should be one to interest both teacher and pupil. Enough factors should be involved to make clear the complexity of human affairs and the wisdom of passing judgment without consideration of all the available evidence; and enough good secondary authorities should be accessible to furnish material for individual and group work by the pupils.

In the arrangement and presentation of material stress is laid on maintaining unity and continuity with due regard to the age and capacity of the pupil. Time-charts kept by the pupils themselves are recommended in this connection. "Geography, Literature and Scripture," and the pupil's own environment, local, and national, should supply material "for an appreciation of the influence of leading events in history, not only on the past, but on the present, and through it on the future."

The Incorporated Association of Preparatory Schools have sponsored a brochure on the teaching of history prepared by E. K. Milliken of Oakham School. This covers pupils up to the ages of 12 and 13 and is accompanied by a syllabus, indicating in chart form "the teacher's story" and a series of topics indicative of the scope of each year's work, and providing for a world survey to 1600. Mr. Milliken

points out that the choice for these ages 8-13 lies between this and a survey of British history but that "it is not . . . altogether in line with present day ideas and developments, and, unless very carefully handled by expert teachers, might easily involve the boy in trying to absorb a narrow and lifeless procession of indigestible facts rather than arouse any permanent interest or reasoned understanding."

This observation might well be made of the alternative which Mr. Milliken recommends. Perhaps a fairly close adherence to the syllabus set up may resolve some of these difficulties. In his chart Mr. Milliken points out the class books suited to such a course, and the teacher's source books. These last indicate the scope of the books with reference to the suggested "teacher's story."

It is of interest to note that in dealing with the problem of the teacher, Mr. Milliken stresses the desirability of the preparatory school supporting a "History Specialist." He is also a firm believer in setting aside a "History Room." In emphasizing its role as a workshop besides being "the symbolic stronghold" of history in the school, it is apparent where Mr. Milliken's interests lie. His well known *Handwork Methods in the Teaching of History* is based on some of his own experiences with this workshop idea. He has apparently influenced the situation in the preparatory school field to the extent of launching with the approval of his Association a set of recommendations based on what would be called in this country, an activity program. He makes a number of practical suggestions as to the selection of the textbook, the furniture and furnishings of the history room, notebooks, and the use of dramatics, "wireless and television," films, puppetry, and "school visits" (our school journeys).

These glimpses of the teaching field reveal a fairly close adherence to history as such with no marked deviations into the areas represented by the other social studies. That history perhaps calls for redefinition or a better adjustment to today's world is evidenced in the sponsorship by the Historical Association of a symposium on *Why We Study History*. Eight well known English historians are represented including such names as A. F. Pollard, C. H. K. Marten, D. C. Somervell, and R. C. K. Ensor. These contributions run the gamut of the various values which have been claimed for history study with very many modern touches such as a protest against "novelized history" and the type of history usually appearing in films.

History, says one, can aid in the acquisition of a sixth-sense, a political wisdom which knows how to allow for the imponderables in human life. It is not merely prime ministers or cabinet ministers who need it, "but under the conditions of nation-wide de-



mocracy it comes increasingly to be needed by the masses." "Whence can they get it [this political wisdom] save from history?" he asks, "History can make people aware that the chain of human obligation, in and by which we live, binds us not only to our contemporaries but to those who went before us and those who will come after."

Another says: "The study of history is a personal matter in which the actuality is generally more valuable than the result. . . . We turn to the past to seek answers to questions that arise in the contemporary world; and as this changes its form so do the questions we ask."

The one woman member of the symposium insists that: "True history . . . is the study of conduct, of the things that men and women in the past have done, why they did them and what the doing caused." It is therefore "logic and psychology shown in action . . . and ethics." She pleads for living history. If men pursue history that is dead "they learn to think in words, the surest way of being blinded to things and people."

The familiar purpose, set forth in Henry Johnson's *Teaching of History*, to make the past intelligible, is echoed by Professor Marten, who reminisces as to his own experiences as a student, pointing to the influence of the school and university. He sets forth as the business of the school, quoting Sir Charles Firth, "to make a boy want to learn history, and of the university to teach him how to learn it."

Dr. Pollard insists that the value of history rests primarily on the fact that "The past has made the present, and the present alone can make the future." "We study it," says he, "because it is the most humane of the humaner studies," pointing out that no human sympathy is required or produced by such studies as geology, physics, or chemistry. "Imagination and sympathy are essential and we must show what men and women thought and felt in the past. Without that insight, history is but a tale told by an idiot." In conclusion he says, "History is a matter of sense as well as of science, of feeling as well as of fact. It is philosophy in action."

One of the most cogent arguments in favor of the study of history is set forth in terms of our recent experiences in the war, prompting Mr. Rowse to insist that it is indispensable to understanding the world we live in. Citing Mr. Baldwin and Mr. Chamberlain, neither of whom was a historian, and, as he insists, in the case of Mr. Chamberlain, "knew no history" he asks: "How can you understand the world of contemporary politics if you know no history?" He proceeds then to pay tribute to Mr. Churchill, who he says, "was not taken in by the smoke-screen of Nazi propaganda or by the dangerous humbug of appeasement. . . . He is not only a

student of history, but his whole mind is impregnated with the historical outlook." This value of history to the understanding of society, which was perceived by all great historians from Thucydides to Marx, has been lost sight of "with the lowering of standards of intelligence consequent upon extending the area of education, and with the soft stuff talked in an epoch of popularization."

But one of his colleagues "on the panel" pays tribute to Mr. Baldwin as a great man, saying that "the remarkable freedom from industrial bitterness through the first four years of this war as contrasted with the last is more due to Mr. Baldwin than to any other single person" and was based "on his historical sense of the underlying unities of English society." His emphasis therefore, is on that study of the past which is related to the present and cultivates a certain amount of historical mindedness. This he admits may be small. "It is a something," says he, "that is a long way from nothing. How far it is from nothing we should realize if this 'nothing' ever confronted us as an adult."

There are many other pertinent observations running through this challenging pamphlet, which is a fair sampling of the attitude of the contemporary British historian toward his own subject, his own interest therein, and his idea of its value to the layman.

These glimpses into workings of the mind and activities of our colleagues across the water may well include the recent presidential address of Professor Powicke before the meeting of the Historical Association at Birkbeck College on New Year's Day just a year ago. In his reminiscences, covering a period of fifty years, he "takes stock" as he expresses it, of what has taken place and of the present outlook for history and its role in the world of today.

Although the historical student was never so conscious of the significance of his subject, he is beset at the same time with a feeling of discomfort because of his inability to give a clear answer to the public so eager to know what it is all about. "The old smooth generalizations," says he, "do not seem to fit and the effort to make new ones is so faltering." He rather deplores the fact that we have turned history into a "subject." "We are expected, willingly or unwillingly, to speak with assurance about the most mysterious and most intimate problem that engages the mind of man, the experience of man as a social being throughout the centuries." He therefore takes exception to the effort to lodge a body of objective truth in children from the age of 11 on. He would not attempt to give formal instruction which would do more than "fix a plan or chart of history." This would be done leisurely, with a good library, encouraging every boy who wanted to know more about

anything to read for himself. Boys from 16 to 18 he would gather about him in small groups for discussion, giving opportunities for the "exercise of historical judgment." This follows somewhat the ideas put forth so admirably several years ago in Happold's *Approach to History*.

History in his judgment is not a school subject in the sense that grammar and natural science are school subjects. "History and its kindred, economics, politics, art and literature, are concerned with the life with which boys and girls should be prepared to cope."

He makes some pertinent comments on the diffi-

culty presented by the historical generalization, reviewing the historiography of the past in its relation to the problem. He points out the desirability of laying less weight on these generalizations, which after all as he says, "clear the way to thought," and are not ultimatums. "No power on earth" says he, "can stop man being interested in himself and his forbears." He pleads then for "more leisure for quiet study and reflection, a frank and humble admission that all historical generalization is an aid to the further pursuit of truth, not the knowledge acquired by a learned class but the study of the past in the light of the wider experience of mankind."

## The Liberal Education of a Medieval Guildsman

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Pope Pius XI, in referring to the Middle Ages, said:

At one period there existed a social order which, though by no means perfect in every respect, corresponded, nevertheless, in a certain measure to right reason according to the needs and conditions of the times.<sup>1</sup>

Instrumental factors in bringing about this social order, to which the Pope referred, were the associations for religious, social, industrial, and commercial purposes—the medieval guilds.<sup>2</sup>

The internal conditions of the cities, directly influenced by the guild system, can be characterized in the words of Saint Thomas Aquinas: They existed in a "tranquility of order." This relatively peaceful condition in society was an outcome of true patriotism, a virtue which exhibits itself in the interest that a citizen takes in the social as well as political welfare of his country. Today we are apt to think that we have made great progress in our American democracy by meeting our social problems through organized and salaried social service bureaus. Have we really improved much on the system of the Middle Ages?

The medieval guildsman, imbued with a deep religious spirit, considered that to strive for the welfare of humanity was a duty binding on all. The care of widows, orphans, the sick, and the poor was a personal concern. There was no need for orphan-

ages, old folks' homes, or poor houses. All fellow guildsmen not only attended the funeral Mass of their deceased brethren but generously gave alms for the support of their families. All this they did gladly believing that the merit of these alms would be transferred to their account in eternity.

The medieval guilds were far advanced in such social legislation as old age pensions and insurance against loss by fire, flood, or accident. Moreover, the unfortunate and suffering brethren—the deaf, blind, mute, and leper—were cared for through the generosity and personal interest of all guild members. It is no wonder then, that a spirit of contentment prevailed among these people in spite of whatever hardships they might have experienced.

The guilds were inspired by the Catholic Church. They carried its spirit in the exercise of self-government into such local affairs as the police system, care of public health, road-making, and, in general, in providing for the comforts and conveniences of the community.

This same community spirit pervaded the social entertainments which the guilds provided. Their social gatherings—festivals and picnics in summer; dances and contests in winter—should be a source of justifiable envy in modern times when there are comparatively few opportunities for innocent and happy pleasure. Would that more students were inspired with zeal for exercising leadership in making the parish a community center similar to that of the Middle Ages!

The work of the guildsman was of such a nature that it required active mental attention at all times.

<sup>1</sup> Pope Pius XI, *The Reconstruction of the Social Order*, (1938), p. 27.

<sup>2</sup> E. and M. Burton, "Guilds," *The Catholic Encyclopedia*, VII (1913), 66-72.

His product had to be the best, and with heart and mind he went into making it the best. Thus, he developed into a thinker. Since "first things first" was his reasoned order of affairs, daily attendance at Mass was part of his daily life; evening services were frequently attended; processions or great feasts were common.

On the feast of Corpus Christi at York, England, in 1415, ninety-six guilds marched with their insignia and forty-four pageants were presented in a procession. Men, women, and children, dressed in their finest attire, with their heads garlanded with flowers, bearing lighted candles in their hands, marched with song and music through the streets of the city to their guild church. Here they reverently attended Mass after which they partook of a merry banquet at the parish hall.<sup>3</sup>

Mystery and morality plays were another factor in the spiritual development of the people of the Middle Ages. Stories of the Old Testament and the New, of the lives of the saints and of the various incidents connected with Church history were worked up into plays and presented in a cycle throughout the year in many cities. It is doubtful whether such intimate contact as these plays afforded, with simplicity of style, sublimity of thought, concentration of purpose, and effectiveness in the expression of the Scriptures could pass over without having effects on the citizens.

These dramatic presentations tended to perfect man, not only spiritually, but they enhanced his intellectual development as well. Much of the time from Christmas to the spring season was occupied in preparation for the presentation of these plays. It is impossible to conceive of anything more likely to give innocent and joyful yet absorbing occupations of mind than these preparations. Actors rehearsed, choruses were trained, costumes were made, and scenery arranged. Everything was done by members of the particular guild for each special play assigned to them. So popular did these plays become that the best writers bent their strongest efforts to produce worthy miracle plays. Renowned artists worked

laboriously to paint fitting scenery which was illuminated by marvelous light effects and strange mechanisms which puzzle the modern reader and tell of an ingenuity that is striking.

Besides the drama, contests were another form of cultural activity. There were guilds of Meistersingers who met together during the long winter evenings and sang or read poems they had composed. These were usually expressions of homage to the Virgin or of other devotional feeling, which burst frequently from the lyrics as an outcome of deep religious sentiment. The unequalled "Dies Irae," "Stabat Mater Dolorosa," and "Lauda Sion" are just a few memorials of medieval accomplishments resulting from an impetus gained through these contests.

The medieval masterpieces of architecture are the most revealing of the cultural mind of the guildsman. While his hands were at work, deep thoughts of greater perfection occupied his mind. The product of his thought, and the power that has wrought these masterpieces of stone, have been expressed by Eleanor C. Donnelly in her poem "Unseen Yet Seen." She meditates on the beauty of a medieval cathedral with its marvels of sculpture:

Flower and fruit and trailing vine  
And lovely angels with folded wings  
Cut from the stone, like living things;  
And pure Madonnas, and saints at prayer,  
With reverent heads and flowing hair—  
Colossal figures by height diminished,  
With every lineament finely finished. . . .

The medieval guildsman, educated through his leisure life, as well as through his work, fits into Saint Thomas' idea of a liberally educated man—"a wise-man—a character architect, who in his personality is a harmonious union of a scientist, a philosopher, an artist and a saint."<sup>4</sup> His leisure-time activities in being patriotic, democratic, religious, and cultural were conducive to this full development and perfection. They helped to make of man an architecture of character, a work of art, a beautiful image of the Creator.

<sup>3</sup> Joseph Husslein, *Democratic Industry* (New York, 1920), p. 249.

<sup>4</sup> Mary H. Mayer, *The Philosophy of Teaching of St. Thomas Aquinas* (Milwaukee, 1929), p. 158.

## Revised Historical Viewpoints

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### MANAGING THE SOUTHERN INDIANS, 1789-1825<sup>1</sup>

In 1789 fully half the lands south of the Ohio

<sup>1</sup> R. S. Cotterill, "Federal Indian Management in the South 1789-1825," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XX (December, 1933), 333-352.

were occupied by four Indian tribes: the Choctaws, Creeks, Cherokees, and Chickasaws, numbering 50,000. In 1825 they were still as numerous, but their lands had been greatly reduced to mere village sites by treaty cessions. In these thirty-six years the



Indians were peacefully managed by Federal agents such as Meigs, Hawkins, and Blount who were considerate of their rights. Later agents, such as Mitchell and McMin, were not kindly disposed to them. Cajolery, gifts, bribes, and control of their trade resulted in peaceful relations.

Government fur trading posts, owned and operated by the government—a policy begun under Washington—secured Indian subservience through high prices paid to them for furs. This policy drew the trade away from British merchants at Mobile and elsewhere. However, private American traders controlled nine-tenths of the trade, which made the Indians dependent on American goods. The Federalist policy, 1789-1801, was designed to civilize the Indians.

In the Jeffersonian period, 1801-1812, the policy was to remove the Indians west of the Mississippi. The agent, R. J. Meigs, after 1807, was successful in inducing many individual Cherokees to move to Arkansas. Jefferson, in his message to Congress of January 18, 1803, advocated the extension of the government fur trade control in order to induce the Indians to take up agriculture so that they would require less land and be more amenable to cessions. (This was the message proposing the Lewis and Clark expedition. He suggested developing the fur trade on the Missouri to draw off traders and Indians from the Ohio and thus encourage land cessions). Privately, Jefferson urged new posts as a means of overselling merchandise to the principal Indian chiefs so as to lead them into debt and encourage land cessions in payment.

The Indians during this time gave little trouble, as they were divided among themselves, dependent on the government in their economic life, and too feeble to oppose government policies. During the War of 1812, the Creeks had been seriously crushed. From 1816-1825, under Calhoun's policy as Secretary of War, the Indians were deprived of much of their land by fraud, force, and chicanery. Despite this record, the Indians in 1825 were fairly well off. Through government annuities, subsidies, and favorable prices extended by the government fur posts, the Indians had turned to farming; they had more comforts than before and were better housed. After 1825 Federal management virtually ceased. Forceful removal westward became the order of the day.

#### LORD DUNMORE'S WAR<sup>2</sup>

Lord Dunmore's War originated in the struggle to settle lands in Kentucky over the opposition of the

Shawnees who lived there. Land speculators were the chief elements who sought these lands abetted by those who would have to buy from the speculators. The Shawnees were reluctant to admit the whites for their entrance meant an interference with Indian hunting rights. The whites in addition to farming would compete with them in obtaining furs.

Virginia claimed the territory south of the Ohio partly on the basis of the Treaty of Fort Stanwix of 1768 by which the Six Nations of New York and Pennsylvania had ceded to the whites the lands south of the Ohio and west to the Tennessee River under the pressure of the colonial speculators. This treaty had ignored the rights of the Shawnees who had settled there with the permission of the Six Nations.

In 1771 the Shawnees had endeavored to stir up the Senecas, the westernmost of the Six Nations, and the tribes living in the Miami, Wabash and Illinois country to protest against this cession. Sir William Johnson of New York, British Superintendent of Indian Affairs, induced the Six Nations to call a conference of all the Indians of the western country to withdraw this protest. At this time surveyors and settlers were preparing to go to the Ohio where the Vandalia Colony, a Pennsylvania-British project, was to be laid out once royal authorization was granted. The Shawnees looked with favor on the project as long as their hunting rights were protected. But in 1774 the Vandalia charter was denied by the Crown.

In December 1774 Governor Dunmore of Virginia wrote Lord Dartmouth that there were only three ways to deal with westward migration, alleging that it was land-hungry people, and not speculators, who furnished the chief incentive for opening the western lands. He declared that immigrants should be allowed to hold lands and should cooperate with the Indians or should form their own democratic governments, or be placed under the protection of some of the older colonies.

In April, 1774, settlers and surveyors invaded Kentucky under Captain John Floyd. They assembled at the mouth of the Kanawha River. The Shawnees warned them not to proceed. In July the Indians attacked them at the Kentucky River, dispersing Floyd and his fifty followers who returned home by way of New Orleans or the Wilderness Road. At the same time a party of eighty or ninety men under George Rogers Clark, not officially sanctioned by Virginia as was Floyd's party, assembled at the Little Kanawha River. One of its advanced groups was attacked by the Shawnees. Michael Cresap, who had just joined, advised the party to return to Virginia lest a general Indian war be precipitated. He expected a peaceful settlement with the Shawnees, as John Connolly at Fort Pitt had been placed by Dunmore in charge of Virginia's western interests and was

<sup>2</sup> Randolph C. Downes, "Dunmore's War: An Interpretation," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XXI (December, 1934), 311-330.

negotiating with the Indians for surveys and settlements in Kentucky. When the Cresap-Rogers party reached Wheeling, advices were received from Connolly at Fort Pitt that peaceful negotiations seemed hopeless as the Shawnees were ill-disposed to the whites. They would permit settlement only if they were compensated for the loss of their hunting rights. This letter of Connolly's led to hostilities which became known as Lord Dunmore's War.

A trading canoe of William Butler, containing a white man, a Shawnee and a Delaware Indian, was attacked on the Ohio. The Indians were killed by some persons, allegedly Shawnees, and the white man, Stephens, was rescued by a party of Cresap's men who happened to be near. The next day Cresap attacked some Shawnee canoes descending from Fort Pitt, killing one Shawnee chief. This and another incident prepared the way for war. On May 3, two Indian men and two women from the Mingo tribe crossed the river to inquire about the shooting of two Mingoes accused of stealing a horse. The four Mingoes were invited to drink and were then shot by white men under Daniel Greathouse. Other Indians attempted to cross the river to inquire into the fate of their comrades. Twice they were met with gunfire. In these attempts, four more Indians were killed including the sister of Logan, leader of the Mingoes.

Logan started out in revenge to attack some white traders, including Richard Butler, at the Hocking River. Friendly Shawnees however brought the whites to their camp to protect them from the Mingoes. The Shawnee chief, Cornstalk, then sent the whites under Indian guard to Pittsburgh requesting McKee, Deputy Indian Superintendent, to request the governors of Pennsylvania and Virginia to put a stop to actions and announcing the determination of the Shawnees to be quiet until they knew what the whites intended to do. Cornstalk also asked Connolly to end such hostility. McKee and Cornstalk, however, had no influence on the governors or on Connolly.

Connolly ordered that the Shawnee guards of Butler's party be arrested. Butler aided them to escape, but Connolly's militia attacked the Shawnees at Beaver's Creek, wounding one. The Shawnees held a Council on all of these matters and decided not to take revenge for the murder of a number of Indians. However, some Shawnees joined with the Mingoes and in June raided some white settlements, killing

thirteen whites. Dunmore ordered the Virginia militia to build three forts at Pittsburgh, Wheeling, and at the Kanawha to prevent the Indians from crossing the Ohio River.

Later he changed from this defensive action and ordered attacks on the Indians. He declared that the expenses of an expedition would be less than that of maintaining garrisons and that scouting parties would also be more effective. Supplementing Dunmore's calls for volunteers, Colonel William Prescott, Official Surveyor of Fincastle County, Kentucky, said the volunteers undoubtedly would be rewarded above their pay by Virginia, and that the plunder would be valuable, especially as the Shawnees had many horses. In the ensuing war the expedition led by Major Angus McDonald destroyed the Shawnee town of Waketomica and six Mingo villages. The Shawnees checked Colonel Lewis at Point Pleasant. The war ended when the Shawnees at Camp Charlotte yielded on the matter of their right to hunt in Kentucky.

The Shawnees lost because they had been isolated from the Delawares and the Six Nations by the diplomacy of Sir William Johnson. The Six Nations had become apprehensive that this war might be the beginning of a general war against all Indians. Johnson persuaded them to believe that the Shawnees had been troublemakers who had attacked innocent settlers. He told the Six Nations that if they could not make the Shawnees behave, the Confederacy would lose prestige and all claims of supremacy over all the Indians. The Six Nations sent a Seneca chief, Kayashota, to treat with the Shawnees. They protested their innocence to him. However, he summoned them to appear in November at a conference at Onondaga. The Shawnees thereupon despatched delegates in advance to plead their case with the Six Nations. Hearing of this in September Johnson sent "persons of weight and character through all the Confederacy, advising them to shut their ears against those who might endeavor to seduce them from their engagements." His messengers arrived before the Shawnee delegates, who, on arrival were told to expect no assistance from them. The Six Nations also persuaded the tribes on the Wabash not to help the Shawnees. Thus the Shawnees would have to sue for peace unsupported by the Six Nations.

Professor Downes does not relate the specific outcomes of the war, especially those relating to lands obtained by land speculators in Kentucky.

# Why Juvenile Delinquency?— Let's Be Objective

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Once again there is great concern for the juvenile delinquent. The "Letters to the Editor" column of our daily newspapers, the discussions at the neighborhood clubs, and numerous speeches and studies—all indicate an awakened interest. As is often the case, however, such desirable interest is not always followed by the correct approach to the subject. There is too much emphasis on denunciation of the juvenile delinquent (and often all juveniles) and not enough detached objective consideration of the factors involved.

There are two general approaches to the problem. One group over-emphasizes the individual's obligations to society, the other group over-emphasizes society's obligations to the individual. Either position renders itself incapable of effective aid by reason of its own extremity. Yet there are two gross aspects to the problem: the individual and the social.

## THE INDIVIDUAL

In the sense that there is no single pattern for the behavior of a normal young citizen, there is no single pattern for the behavior of the juvenile delinquent. The delinquency of a juvenile arises out of a complex background and is the result of several seemingly inseparable causes. Likewise, delinquency expresses itself in a variety of ways and in various stages of social complexity. But between poverty, ignorance, disease, and other causes of delinquency, and crime, lying, general maladjustment and other expressions of delinquency there is always the individual.

With either the cause or the expression of patterns of action termed delinquency it seems to be a matter of having or not having; of doing or not doing. This is not the case. Whereas we attribute a wholesome unified personality to the acceptable young citizen, it is insufficient to say that a juvenile delinquent is one who lacks a wholesome unified personality. The implications of the latter state are different from those of the former. Being ill is not the opposite of being well. It is not merely a problem of insufficiency; it is a problem involving the meaning of this insufficiency in the total personality of the delinquent. It is society phrasing a blanket encouragement, "You can do better." It is, as one boy replied: "That's what you think!"

Juvenile delinquency does not indicate a static condition of a negative personality. It is a human condition capable of and, indeed, likely to change. It is a dynamic condition in which the personality will lend itself to such conditions as seem expedient. This is not a serious charge as much acceptable behavior may be measured in terms of expediency. Usually the juvenile delinquent is capable of dynamic thought and action but he is a pauper in his total experience. Like other adolescents he is intense in loyalties, acceptable or substitute. The young delinquent may often show an eagerness to develop acceptable loyalties even though he may insist on unconventional demonstrations of them.

Digressions from the acceptable patterns of action often take on emotional characteristics such as hate, and just as emotion tends to be unified, it is often a less distance from the good to the bad in the total personality than we think. An individual, unsuccessful in his attempts to adjust in any given situation, may in his frustration fix hate upon some individual or individuals in the situation. Various expressions of this attitude are often termed delinquent. But the fact remains that the individual may be re-adjusted in favor of positive action with only a feeling of insecurity as the result. The feeling arises from the fact that the individual understands neither his maladjustment nor his adjustment. This is important because the individual really needs to understand why he is happy or unhappy.

Active citizenship, good or poor, is a psychological experience. We may nurture the good by group approval expressed in various ways, but the attachment of group censure to an act or an individual does not have the meaning in terms of decisions and conduct for a delinquent that the attachment of group approval has to the "good citizen." In the same sense good or poor citizenship is a social phenomenon and the choosing of the good does not mean that we understand the full implication of the poor.

The first question is not: "Is it good or poor citizenship?" The first questions are:

1. On what impressions does the child act?
2. On what mental and emotional standards does he receive satisfactions?
3. What is the nature of the impressions and



standards? Volition, variations, consistencies, fixations, prejudices, etc.

To society, the terms "good" or "poor" with reference to citizenship, denote quality. To the delinquent they are patterns of action. The pattern of action called "poor" may be a deliberate substitute for a more desirable pattern of action. In most cases, however, the individual is ill-equipped to comprehend, much less to achieve, those patterns of action that are considered acceptable. Under either condition the delinquent considers each new situation in terms of his own experiences and emotional attitudes. In the functional sense the delinquent does not comprehend the total situation which may be quite evident to a successful citizen. Due to this, he readily dispenses with what the majority calls "quality" acts for others more expedient. The judgment of society in regard to any specified delinquency would seem to be only remotely related to the total experience of the individual in any given situation.

Also, often there is fixed upon the individual a prejudice which is really a social prejudice directed toward an act. Society or its immediate agents allow themselves to become so impressed with the social stigma of an act that they render themselves incapable of dealing with the individual in a detached objective manner. There must be clarity in the study of the relationship existing between the causes, the individual, and the act or acts. Behavior is not absolute; individuals are "good" or "bad" in a relative sense only. This does not mean that an individual and his experiences may be separated. Each should be given its proper value in the total situation. Proper values may not be assigned, however, through methods affected by undemocratic indifference as to the value of *all* personalities. At times it seems that society gives less attention to understanding the individual delinquent than the delinquent merits.

The attempt to understand the individual delinquent is conditioned by the approach of society as a whole to this problem. There is the inescapable fact that teachers and parents as primary agents of society in these matters are more sensitive to the whim and prejudice of society than to the objective needs of the individual. This is not to fix blame. It is to determine conditions. What, then is the nature of the approach of society to the problem?

#### SOCIETY

There are several conditions which indicate that as a group the approach to the problem of juvenile

delinquency has been in error. These errors are really characteristics of a natural social reaction, just as the errors of a juvenile delinquent are characteristics of a natural individual reaction.

First, the value of the psychological has been discounted. The problems of the individual have been ignored or ineffectively treated until pressures have made them social problems. The individual is deserving of primary attention and he should receive this attention before making a social nuisance of himself. Society must no longer regard juvenile delinquency as a threat to its collective self, for the delinquency is a part of society, itself. The individual is only the focal point.

Second, we have planned our attack in the confusion of battle. Recurrent intervals of delinquency bring recurrent speeches. This is just as natural as it is to talk most of peace when in war or to wish for health when ill. The psychology of all peoples calls for increased social stigma to be attached to an undesired act and particularly to the individual involved in the act. This is a natural reaction but it is too subjective. In the case of the delinquent this may serve a type of purpose, but it is doubtful if either the sociologist or psychologist would say that there is much gained in terms of the total strength of an individual. Objectivity cannot be the result of this situation. Society is frustrated, and out of this frustration grows the present divergent approach to the problem.

Third, we speak and often think of juvenile delinquency as an entity, much as we speak of a building, a plane, or a street. It seems a thing which can be set aside and "across the tracks." This is not true, for it is a part of our national psychology. In a sense it represents the loose end of our national psychology. This cannot be regarded as desirable, for our national psychology should be as unified as that of a well-adjusted individual.

Just as the line or progression from the acceptable to the undesirable is often indiscernible in the individual, so it is from individual to individual in our total society. This justifies a demand for increased ability to think in terms of mass responsibility, action, and benefit. These abilities would better equip us to deal with the psychological and sociological needs of the delinquent.

Strangely enough, the eradication of the problem of juvenile delinquency should not be regarded as the ultimate goal; the goal is a well-adjusted and happy individual.

# Drug Stores of Colonial Days

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The wide range of products offered for sale in a modern drug store has been the subject of frequent humorous remarks. People have pointed out how far these shops have drifted from their main purpose of dispensing medicines. If the modern customer believes it is only recently that a profusion of articles have been sold in drug stores, he needs only to turn to the advertisements in colonial newspapers to disillusion himself of the idea that this is all the result of nineteenth and twentieth century industrialization.

During the years before the American Revolution there were very few trained physicians and their scientific knowledge was pitifully small. Most people were forced to rely on home remedies when common ailments made life miserable and even when serious disease gripped some member of the family. Most injuries and illnesses were given treatment based on former experiences or the advice of neighbors and friends.

Often some member of the community had special interest and skill in preparing medicines and caring for the sick. Each family tried to have on hand a few drugs and standard "cure-alls." Especially among the poor and improvident the medicine cabinet was likely to bear a discouragingly close resemblance to "Mother Hubbard's Cupboard." Some had no money to buy articles "on the chance" that they would be needed, while others rejoiced in good health and let "tomorrow take care of itself" or subscribed to the philosophy which even George Washington was known to express at times, that "sickness might go by the same means by which it came."

Large numbers of people relied on medicine made from herbs grown and prepared at home. In the colonial cities both physicians and drug stores were found. In the small towns the druggist provided both medicine and advice, while the barber often acted as surgeon.

Through radio, newspaper advertisements, and drug store display, the marvelous value of many patent medicines is impressed upon us and from their sale the drug store proprietor derives considerable profit. In the middle of the eighteenth century druggists advertised "all sorts of Patent Medicines from the original warehouses in London; Anderson's, Hooper's and Lockyers' Pills; Bateman's Pectoral Drops; Daffy's Elixir; Stroughton's Elixir; Genuine Turlington's Balsam of Life; Universal Balsam; Balsam de Malta" and the inevitable "British Oil" which, like a number of other products sold in

colonial days, still finds a place on the shelves of the modern drug store.

Some of the claims made for colonial patent medicines were as great as those made for patent medicines today, but the descriptions of their remarkable qualities were not presented in the elaborate style to which we are accustomed. In colonial days you might purchase "Fever and Ague Pills, which never fail to cure," or "Tinctura Anticholica or the Cholick Elixir which is a certain Cure for that troublesome Disorder: Two Spoonfuls perfect a Cure: The third never fails." "Green's Tooth Ach Drops" were certain to kill the pain caused by decayed or abscessed teeth. "James' Fever Powders" were sure to be beneficial no matter what the cause of the fever might be. "Ward's Head Ach Drops and Fistula Paste with all his advertised Medicines" were especially effective according to one colonial druggist. Cordials were thought to have considerable medicinal value and large quantities were consumed by the people of the eighteenth century. "Cordials of all Kinds . . . such as Anniseed, Clove, Alfours, Snake Root and Tansy" were to be had on demand. Highly recommended was "Pectoral Balsam of Honey, by Dr. Hill, of London, a Medicine worth its weight in Gold, being the best Cure for Coughs, Consumptions, and Disorders of the Breast, Now in Use, and well deserves the Notice of the Public." Likewise, "Elixir Bardana a certain Cure for the Gout and Rheumatism; Tincture of Golden Rod for the Stone and Gravel; Tincture Valerian for Nervous Disorders."

The barber could find instruments for his surgical work and the physician materials suited to his needs. There were "Surgeon's Capital Instruments in Shagreen Cases, lined with velvet, Cases of crooked Needles, Best lancets With & without Cases." One could buy "Stoppers all Sizes, Bottle and Vial Corks, Ointment and Syrup Pots, Pill Pots and Glasses, Double Flint Bottles, Ground." There were "plain Vials, Gally Pots, Pill Boxes, Cupping Glasses, Fine Sieves and Isinglass."

"Teeth Instruments of different Sorts with most Kind of Instruments now in Use" sounds rather rough on one's teeth when appearing along with "Spatulas, Knives, Boxes, Scales and Weights and Brass, Marble and Glass Mortars, and Pestles."

Most of the patent medicines and many of the other articles sold in colonial drug stores were imported from England. In the case of medicines it was customary to emphasize the freshness of the

products and to announce the arrival of new supplies by "the latest boat from London." Some of the drug stores stated that they were engaged in both wholesale and retail trade.

We know how popular the tobacco counter is today. Let us see what could be had in the eighteenth century. The druggist would be glad to supply you with "fine violet Strasburgh Snuff" or "Rappee Ditto."<sup>1</sup> Of course you would buy some; its use was restful and relaxing to both men and women who gently breathed the fine-powdered product.

Would you need some spices for the pantry shelf? In colonial drug stores you could purchase cinnamon, cloves, mace, nutmegs, and pepper. Likewise you could get annis, caraway, and coriander seeds which had medicinal values and were also used to make certain foods more appetizing.

One of the articles you would not be likely to find in the average modern drug store, but which was a typical drug store product of colonial days, was painters' colors. White and red lead, Spanish brown, yellow ocher, Prussian blue, rose pink and other tints were advertised. One could also buy brushes, tools, and pencils. Both hard and soft varnish were among the products listed for house and furniture.

Beauty preparations, then as now, formed an important part of drug store stock. "Pomatum" was an article which met with much favor, especially among the men who applied it liberally to their hair. Pomatum was delicately perfumed and could be bought in various scents. Fine lip salves to prevent chapping and to keep the lips soft and smooth were on sale. Many kinds of perfumes were offered. Oil of lavender and "essence of Bergamot" were two of the most popular. Even in colonial days women searched for a way to remove freckles. The drug stores advised them to try "French cold Cream which takes out all Pimples and Freckles Tan, etc., and makes the skin white and smooth."

Although there were no colonial soda fountains dispensing "cokes," sodas, sundaes, and sandwiches, one could purchase a limited variety of sweets. One could get almonds, often with a sugar coating, also, white and brown sugar candy, figs, and raisins.

Here are some of the commodities sold in Mr. Charlton's drug store in Baltimore in 1764 as adver-

tised in the *Maryland Gazette*:

Anodyne Necklaces  
Antimony  
Best refined Salt Petre  
Quick Silver  
Distill'd Vinegar  
Liquorish Ball  
Juniper Berries  
Borax  
Crucibles  
White Wax  
English and Dutch Saffron  
Gold, Silver, & Dutch Leaf  
Hartshorn Shavings  
Isinglass  
Wafer Paper to take Medicine in  
Tamarinds  
Essence Lemons  
Barbados Tar  
London Court Plaster  
Best Crown Lancets, with & without Cases  
Spring Lancets, with & without Cases  
Bolus Knives  
Spatulas  
Bougies  
Box Scales & Weights  
Glass Funnels  
Carolina Pink Root  
Sweet Oil  
Oil Turpentine  
Rozin  
Clyster Syringes  
Common Ditto  
Ivory Ditto  
Neat Engraved Labels  
Allom  
Copperas  
Flour Brimstone  
Aether for Head Ach  
Eau de Luce  
Godfrey's Cordial  
Hungary, Lavender, & Honey Water  
Quinta Effentia Solis  
Spirits Scurvy Grass  
Stoppers of all Sizes  
Brass Caps  
Urinals  
Brass, Marble, Glass Mortars and Pestles

<sup>1</sup> The word "Ditto" is frequently used in colonial advertisements instead of repeating the name of the article.



# War and the Balance of Power in Europe

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In considering the causes of war in modern times, the writer includes the "balance of power" as one of the important causes. Historically speaking, the situation which brings about a balance of power in Europe is this: The nations have grown into two jealous and more or less hostile groups, according to national and international interests and ambitions. Some member of one of these groups soon becomes so strong or influential as to threaten the peace and safety, if not the territorial possessions and trade advantages, of the other group. Then a neutral nation, one which has not been definitely allied with either group (as Great Britain often), or one member of the original groups, joins the weaker group, in order to "even up" the balance and to preserve the general peace (which is to its advantage), thus protecting the weaker side. This expedient often delays, if it does not prevent, a costly and disastrous international war. But the curious fact is that, while the balance of power was formed each time to prevent the near approach of conflict, in a short time, nevertheless, it often led to a European war instead of preventing it. Likewise, the "armed peace"—large standing armies and large navies, so closely related as a rule to this balance of power—have repeatedly helped to bring on war rather than to safeguard peace. In other words, too often the lull in the period of balance of power is taken advantage of by some member to prepare for commercial and military domination.

In looking into the immediate background of World War I we note that, to a considerable extent, the conditions that brought about the great European conflict in 1914 can be traced to the Congress of Vienna, at the end of the Napoleonic era, a century before. It was Napoleon, it will be recalled, who had so violently upset the balance of power in Europe. Our recent era, consequently, has often been compared and contrasted with the Napoleonic period, a little over a century ago. And in no other respect, perhaps, in theory at least, has the contrast been so sharply drawn as in the difference of motive that actuated Prince Metternich and his autocratic Congress of princes and their minions, on the one hand, and the motives, which were the impelling force in appealing to and eliciting the support of the *peoples* of the liberal nations in the World War of 1914-1918, on the other. The contrast was emphasized in

the spirit of support of the peace conference at Versailles, although much of the peoples' trust and many of their hopes were betrayed in the Versailles settlement, as revealed later.

Since this is true, in our brief review of the immediate background of the first World War we cannot stop short of the Congress of Vienna (1814-1815) and its immediate outgrowth, the Holy Alliance and Concert of Europe. There were two cardinal principles of this notorious Vienna Congress that were responsible in so large a degree for the terrible woes of the present century: (1) the bargaining of the territories and nationalities as if they were "mere chattels and pawns in a game"; (2) the restoration of oppressive and autocratic kings upon their thrones, against the flame of democracy kindled by the French Revolution, with the repression of all democratic aspiration of the *people* of the nations. One needs but to examine the history of the first half of the nineteenth century and recall the origin of our Monroe Doctrine to satisfy himself as to this fact. European democracy in recent years has been blundering and ineffective, it is true; but this is because it had so little opportunity to function and establish itself in the nineteenth century. Let us not forget this fact when we are falsely urged to condone traitorous dictatorships in this day.

Despite the strength of the peoples' revolutions of 1830 and 1848, which came so near overthrowing once for all this medieval tyranny in Europe, enough of it remained on the continent to make possible the next great step in the violation of the rights of man—the crime of Bismarck and the Prussian war-lords in the character of their wars for the union of the German peoples in a great empire. This story is too well known to warrant its repetition here. But what was the consequence of this type of unification? That is what is all-pertinent to our subject in hand. It was simply this: Bismarck's imperialistic and "blood and iron" policy arrayed a group of nations in bitter, distrustful, and hostile feeling against himself, his sovereign, and the new German empire. To meet this menace to his dream of a "Deutschland über Alles" the greater part of the remaining years of his life was spent. The astute imperial Chancellor sought constantly an alliance to meet this growing hostility with another threat, or application, of "blood and iron." He would sow discord (*divide et impera*, to

use a Latin expression of diplomacy)—as has frequently been practiced by Germany and other powers since (Italy more recently), and bring into jealous rivalry, if possible, his threatening opponents, while he would seek an alliance with one or more of them. And this alliance would safeguard the interests of Germany in the future. Thus arose the *Triple Alliance*, of Bismarck's "Dreibund" of Germany, Austria, and Italy, in 1881.

Italy, contrary to her natural interests and past experience, was induced to join this "Unholy Alliance" with the Teutonic powers because of France's aggressive movements at this time in Algeria, Northern Africa, which territory was coveted by Italy and was adjacent to Tunis, which had already been appropriated by France. This territory, in turn, adjoined Tripoli, which the Italians in 1911 were to fight with Turkey for. The Italian people, however, soon became aware that their age-long enemies, Austria and Germany, were more a menace to them than was France. Hence at an early date Italy showed that she could not be depended upon in an offensive war as a partner of the Teutonic countries—as several German writers pointed out years before the fateful outbreak of war in 1914. Thus occurred the beginning of a shift in the "balance."

And now, to go back to another thread in our narrative and interpretation: After the humiliation of France in 1871, Bismarck had hoped that his neighbor to the west was so completely crushed that she would never again be a real obstacle to the ambitions of Germany. He was, therefore, astonished and not a little alarmed to witness the rapid recovery of France from her losses in this war. By 1875 he was planning another war with France, one of the "spurious versenkt" kind. But he had already sown the "dragon's teeth." Great Britain and Russia both called a halt upon him. He was constrained to forego this war; but he must make up for this failure in some way. Then followed his constant effort until he secured the Triple Alliance already referred to.

Bismarck then rejected, as aggressive military dictators and leaders today have utterly ignored, the Christian warning that: "They who take the sword shall perish by the sword."

But before the "dreibund" was accomplished: i.e., the Triple Alliance of Austria, Prussia, and Italy, which lasted until the World War of 1914-1918, the war cloud had lowered over the Balkans, and in this both Germany and Austria were deeply interested. The Balkan provinces, stung to madness by the "Bulgarian massacres" and other atrocities, were planning a revolution and war, led by Bulgaria, to drive the "abominable Turk," as he was called, out of Europe. And they looked to Russia for aid. The Czar and Russian government were more than willing, since they had their hearts set upon Constanti-

nople and the Mediterranean trade. Upon the pretext of interfering in behalf of the persecuted Christians, Russia joined the Balkans, marched upon the Turks, and soon won a complete victory over the Sultan.

In this Russo-Turkish War of 1878 the Ottoman rule in Europe would have ended, but for the jealous intervention of the other great powers of Europe, led by Austria and Great Britain. This time they feared that Russia, rather than Germany (and Germany was with them, strongly seconding Austria) would break the balance of power and threaten their expansion if not their empires. Then, upon the close of this war, which only partly emancipated the Balkans from the Turks, came the famous Congress of Berlin. Bismarck was playing a grand role in securing this congress for Prussia, and he was the dominating figure in it. But the real significance of this Treaty of Berlin for our purpose is, that *Russia considered Germany as one of the chief nations that had robbed her of her conquests of war*, and hence Russia was later willing to listen to the overtures of Germany's most watchful adversary, France.

After the movement described in the preceding paragraphs had culminated for Bismarck and Germany in the Triple Alliance of 1881, France was the first to sense the larger meaning of it all, and sought an alliance to counteract the "Dreibund." This led to the Dual Alliance between France and Russia; for Russia, as we have seen, had had a forecast of Bismarckian diplomacy in the Congress of Berlin and, next to France, was most endangered by the new militant Germany.

Great Britain so far had kept aloof from both alliances. Relying upon her fleet and upon her isolation by water from the Continent, she, like the United States for a century, felt for a time that she could steer an independent course. Both nations have since been disillusioned. (This situation, by the way, has often been set forth as a strong argument in favor of some sort of an association of nations, to take the place of the "balance of power," which will never remain balanced.) It was the immense increase of standing armies on the Continent, as against Great Britain's "contemptible little army" of volunteers, and the German feverish rush to build a great navy, that opened the eyes of the Englishmen and, coupled with the rapprochement efforts of King Edward VII, led Great Britain about 1905 to the "friendly understanding" (*Entente Cordiale*) with France, and then with Russia. This Triple Entente amounted to a threefold alliance against the Triple Alliance of the Teutonic powers and Italy, with the distinct advantage that England was able to secretly cultivate a friendly feeling with Italy, for reasons which we have already stated.

It is significant that this Triple Entente was con-

summated in spite of the Fashoda incident of 1898, which had threatened war between England and France, and in spite of some conflicting interests of these two nations in the Near East. Moreover, this Entente was maintained throughout the next decade (1905-1915) despite the difficulties that Great Britain and Russia encountered over "spheres of influence" in Persia and over boundaries in the Himalayas. *These facts serve to show that Great Britain, France, and Russia all distrusted the bold and unscrupulous policy of Germany, and would compromise their own differences in order to have each other's aid against this common danger, whenever the test should come.* This explains the continuance of the Triple Entente to the very hour of the war in 1914.

Meanwhile Germany and Austria-Hungary were showing unmistakable signs of determination to control all central Europe and also the Gateways of the East, by their Mittel-Europa-Berlin-to-Bagdad railway scheme, and Austria's aggressiveness in the Balkans. Let us not forget that Austria had been instrumental in robbing Russia of the Balkan victories, in 1878, and now (1908), while Russia, as a result of the Russo-Japanese War and internal conflict, was powerless to aid her Balkan kindred, annexed the Serbian provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina. This she did without any nation's consent except her own (and the encouragement of her ally Germany), and contrary to the wishes of their own inhabitants.

The German emperor had urged Austria to proceed with this seizure of the two Balkan provinces, promising her that with his "shining sword" he would stand by her side. Thus had Austria, at the risk of a great war in Europe, changed by main force the status of a couple of Balkan provinces that had

been assigned to her for protection at the Congress of Berlin—changed them from a weak protectorate for administrative purposes into a part and parcel of her empire. This is one of several instances in which Germany and Austria in the decade 1905-1915 by their so-called "brazen aggressions" threatened the peace of Europe and the world.

And now, let it be emphasized in conclusion, a new balance of power, with Germany and Italy as the chief movers on one side (the "German-Italian Axis, as Mussolini termed it), and France and Russia on the other, was built up; and, once more it was to be seen that this balance of power could not prevent a general European and world war. Moreover, this situation was further aggravated by the aggressions of Japan in China and the Far East, and by Italy in Ethiopia. Thus developed the Axis powers and their plots against the liberal nations of the world.

The League of Nations was formed with high hopes of functioning as an effective substitute for and successor to this balance of power and the constant shifts of the nations concerned, with their consequent dangers to world peace and stability. But now it is tragically revealed—wherever the chief fault may lie—that the League failed in the world's greatest crisis, and the supreme threat to world peace has arisen; for no "unpredictable miracle" has happened to dispel the darkening clouds of general war and the devastating hurricane which has followed; much less have the democratic powers of Europe and America, in conjunction with the League of Nations or any other agency, through economic boycott, a show of power, or otherwise, been able to call the hand of the ruthless dictators and selfish imperialists of our generation.

## Sidelights Concerning Colonial Education

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Compared with our modern, gigantic educational program, with its million dollar school systems, the poor, small, and uncomfortable colonial schools fade away into insignificance. To us, their scant furnishings and uninteresting books, tiresome and indifferent methods of teaching—made even more unbearable by a great severity of discipline—make our institutions of learning appear havens of intellectual research where edification of the mind and body cannot be anything but a joy! The rather disappointing fact is that these humble colonial schools accomplished so much more than expected, while our

magnificent halls of learning have seemingly brought a general cultural blackout. Considering the fine calibre of citizen produced, in spite of the environmental hindrances mentioned, Colonial children got educated in an amazing degree for that day because there was imbedded in them a deep desire to know. A common parental prayer was: "Child, if God makes thee a good Christian and a good scholar, 'tis all thy mother ever asked for thee."

Immediately after the founding of the colonies in America, the pioneers attempted to educate their children and most of the colonies, in turn, tried their



best, considering their limited budgets, to foster general elementary education.

Rhode Island, a refuge for malcontents and radicals, was the only stand-out among the New England colonies in not publicly compelling the building of schools and the education of children. Massachusetts, however, was the leader in this movement and remained so for the whole colonial period. In 1636 over half of the annual income of the colony of Massachusetts was turned over to the establishment of what later became Harvard College. It was an outstanding event in education, marking the first time that any body of people in any country ever gave, through its representatives, its own money to found a place of education.

The southern colonies were not at first as enthusiastic for mass education as the Puritan colonies. Virginia had few schools for over a century after the founding of Jamestown. The narrow policy of the colony throughout those years was well exemplified in the stubborn and prejudiced statement of Governor Berkeley, written in 1670: "I thank God there are in Virginia no free schools nor printing, and I hope we shall not have, for learning hath brought disobedience and heresy into the world." Nevertheless, some Virginians contributed money to establish free schools for the poor children, in time. The chief reason against public schools, outside of outright prejudice, was the fact that the southern colonies did not have the town or village life of their northern neighbors; houses and plantations were far scattered, and the gathering of children into public school-buildings was quite a problem because of travel difficulties—and resulting labor shortages, if children would be kept from the fields in school for most of the day. Until 1700 Jamestown was the only Virginia town, still a small settlement. Children of the wealthy planters had private tutors or were sent to England to the established private schools there.

The only educational facility in Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia, was the "old-field" type of school, established by the uniting of a few neighbors to hire a teacher. The teacher, often a poor one, like "hedge-teachers" of Europe, taught a short term of school, usually in a shabby building in some old exhausted tobacco field.

George Washington received his early education in one of these "old-field" schools, kept by a schoolman named Hobby, who was sexton, pedagogue, and the "most conceited man in three parishes." George rode ten miles daily on horseback to attend his school. Later he spent a year of rowing daily, even in the roughest weather, across the Potomac River to Fredericksburg to a larger school. Formal schooling for Washington ended at his thirteenth year, but this experience of getting education the hard way whetted

his appetite for learning and bred others like him who became the Founders of our Republic.

Many thinking Virginians sensed the handicaps to be met in an ignorant populace, as witnessed by the complaint written by a colonist to the Bishop of London: "This lack of schools in Virginia is a consequence of their scattered planting. It renders a very numerous generation of Christian's Children . . . unserviceable for any great Employment in Church or State."

In spite of these deficiencies, it is amazing that when the Revolution broke out, great numbers of Americans reached world renown as statesmen, orators, and generals. Earlier, Cotton Mather, one of the most brilliant scholars of his day, said in 1685: "The youth of this Country are verie Sharp and early Ripe in their capacities."

New England's advantage in education was that it was controlled, in public and private life, by Puritan preachers, who felt that "unless school and college flourish, church and state cannot live"; and these clerics were the accredited guardians of the schools.

At the beginning of colonization, a forward step was made in Massachusetts in 1647 when it was decreed that every town of fifty families should provide a school to teach reading and writing; and that every town of 100 householders were required to have a grammar school. These schools were public, but not free; they were supported at the expense of the parents of the pupils.

In 1644 Salem, Massachusetts, ordered all children to be schooled and, if parents were well-to-do, they had to pay their share, whether their children attended school or not. About this same time land was allocated for school purposes. "School meadows" or "school fields" were let out for an income to help pay the teacher. At a later date, lotteries were favorite methods of raising money for schools.

"Free" education, however, did not arrive in Massachusetts in its true meaning until the Revolution, when a school was paid for entirely by general town taxes. When the schools of Boston were opened to all, that community stood alone for its liberality, not only in America, but in the world!

Prominent citizens obtained tutors from England, Scotland, and the northern colonies. In many cases not only were tutors indentured servants, but frequently were treated as such and made to feel the inferiority of their position. One John Warden refused to accept the post of tutor in a Virginia family unless he was "treated as a gentleman." A great number of boys from the more wealthy families were sent abroad for their education—to England chiefly.

Despite their English education, few were as precocious as the New Englander Jonathan Edwards, who began Latin at six, was reading Locke's *On The*

*Human Understanding* when other boys were lost in "Robinson Crusoe," and was ready for college at thirteen. Few could quote classical writers or show such wide reading and extensive knowledge of books as did Cotton Mather or Thomas Hutchinson, strictly colonial products. But, of course, these are the exceptional cases of learning, brought on chiefly because of an enlightened family guidance.

It is interesting to note how schoolmasters were paid. In these early days the pay was anything that passed for money—in wampum, beaver skins, Indian corn, wheat, peas, or any country product known as "truck." In Salem, a scholar was always found seated in the school window nearest the road for the purpose of hailing passers-by in order to sell to them the accumulation of corn, vegetables, and such, which had been given in payment to the teacher.

In winter, logs for the fireplace were furnished by the parents of the students as part of the pay for the schooling received. Teachers, indignant at the carelessness of parents who failed to send the expected load of wood early in winter, often banished the unfortunate child of the tardy parent to the coldest corner of the room.

Windsor, Connecticut, voted "that the committee be empowered to exclude any scholar that shall not carry his share of wood for the use of said school." In 1736 West Hartford ordered every child barred from the fire "whose parents had not sent wood."

Quakers and also various foreign-speaking groups, did not encourage absolute illiteracy, but thought knowledge of the three R's was enough. They disapproved of any extended scholarship because, they said, it fostered undue pride and provoked idleness. The Germans in the Pennsylvania region were most guilty of this type of thinking and had few secular schools. To them, the Calvinist and Lutheran preachers were the only authority. No secularly educated persons were desired; only religious books were tolerated. Some German settlers said schooling made boys lazy and dissatisfied on farms and that religion would suffer by too much learning. One writer wrote: "Book learning gets the upper hand and work is slow and slack, and they that come long after us will find things gone to wrack."

Perhaps one cannot blame too strongly their antagonism toward public education when one realizes that the teachers, especially in the middle and southern colonies, lived in degraded circumstances; many were redemptioners and convicts sent to the colonies. A typical advertisement of the day reads: "Ran away: A Servant man who followed the occupation of a Schoolmaster, much given to drinking and gambling." Drunkenness was common among schoolmasters—and even among southern preachers.

The first pedagogue of New Amsterdam was a

"character" indeed, one Adam Roelantsen who was often in court both as plaintiff and defendant. Finally, after many questionable scrapes, he was sentenced to flogging. His contract showed the diversity of activities required of the early schoolmaster (perhaps he had good reason to rebel and take to drink!): "Set others a good example as becometh a devout, pious, and worthy consoler of the sick, church clerk, precentor, and schoolmaster."

The routine of a Flatbush, Long Island, school in 1682 was: Bell rung to call scholars at 8 A.M.; recess at 11; open again for session at 1; closed at 4. All sessions began and closed with prayer. On Wednesdays and Saturdays the children were taught the questions and the answers in the Catechism and the common prayers. A master who was a "speller or reader" was paid three guilders a quarter (usually in wheat or corn); a "writer," four guilders.

Other duties of a teacher were: Rang the church bell on Sunday; read the Bible at service in church; led in singing; sometimes read the sermon; provided water for baptisms, bread and wine for communions; did all the duties of a sexton, including sweeping out the church; delivered invitations to funerals and carried messages for the pastor. He sometimes dug graves and often visited and comforted the sick. And for all this, a well-paid man teacher, in 1786, was paid, plus board, lodging, and washing, the magnificent sum of sixty-seven cents a week, which was considered a liberal and ample stipend.

The first country schools in Pennsylvania and New York were loghouses having rough puncheon or dirt floors. Sometimes, to irritate the teacher, unruly students stirred up the dust on the floor into a veritable cloud. The master sat in the middle of the room. Boards placed on pegs stuck into the wall served as desks for the older students who sat with their backs facing the teaching. Younger pupils sat on blocks or benches in the center of the room. There were usually no glass windows; greased paper over holes in the walls gave dim light and little protection from the cold. There were no blackboards, no maps, no libraries.

Faber's pencils were used as early as 1761. Peter Goelet advertised lead pencils for sale in New York in 1786, with India rubber erasers, but these were not in common use. Ink was popularly used. Copybooks made of foolscap paper sewed into book shape and ruled by hand were the notebooks. Lead plummet, used as pencils, were made of lead melted and cast into wooden moulds cut out by a knife and tied by hempen string to the ruler, like a tomahawk. Paper was a scarce commodity and was not to be wasted. This scarcity resulted in the microscopic handwriting characteristic of much of this period—all for economy's sake. Birch bark was often used as

a substitute for paper. Slates were not used until about 1800. They were first frameless and had a hole pierced at one side on which a pencil could be hung or by which they could be suspended around the owner's neck.

Where there were no schools, "putting forth" of children into the better homes as scholar-servants prevailed in many regions. New England ministers commonly eked out their meager incomes by taking youngsters into their homes to educate and to use for the daily chores, enabling the good preachers to have time to prepare adequately the next Sunday's two hour long sermon.

Josiah Quincy tells of his schooling at an Andover, Massachusetts, parsonage where eight boys slept together in a room. The fare was ample and simple. Children often were sent for their education to kinsfolk of better means or to those living in closer proximity to schools.

Generally, the education of girls was neglected. The limit of their booklearning was to read and write in a simple way, to do simple ciphering. Many a colonial girl knew nothing of ciphering, however, and many did not read or write. In the seventeenth century, the English gentleman looked with marked disfavor on learned women. Sir Ralph Verney, a kindly man, in 1690, wrote: "Let not your girle learn Latin and short hand; the difficulty of the first may keep her that Vice, for soe I must esteem it in a woeman."

Occasionally, an intelligent father would carefully teach his daughters privately. The wife of

President John Adams, born in 1744, had such an early training. She wrote in 1817: "I never was sent to school. . . . Female education in the best families went no further than writing and arithmetic; in some few instances, music and dancing."

There was an advertisement in a Providence journal in 1767 announcing tutelage in writing and arithmetic to "young ladies." But girls had to go to school from 6 to 7:30 a.m., from 4:30 to 6 p.m. and pay two dollars per quarter. A typical answer to education for girls was: "In winter it's too far for girls to walk; in summer they ought to stay at home to help in the kitchen."

The first school for girls only, where they were taught in branches of learning not given in the lower schools, was started in 1780 at Middleton, Connecticut. Dame schools, similar to a present-day kindergarten, were attended by boys and girls at an earlier date.

The first woman teacher taught a class of young children at her home in Northfield, Massachusetts, for a period of twenty-two weeks each summer. She received fourpence a week per child. Besides taking care of her class, she had four children of her own, did the work of the household, made sheets for Indians for eightpence each and breeches for Englishmen for one shilling six pence a pair and wove much linen to order.

So, from this haphazard, rugged beginning, we have our schools developed into one of the "Big Businesses" of today.

## French Indo-China

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The vast peninsula which projects itself southward from the mainland of Asia and which separates the China Sea from the Indian Ocean contains two important countries: Thailand and French Indo-China.

Since 1941 the Japanese have dominated Indo-China, but the Nipponese yoke is daily becoming less secure. French resistance to the Japanese is already increasing in violence. The country has been promised a place, upon liberation, in the federation of French colonies. Under this plan it would have its own parliament and autonomy in economic and cultural matters.

French Indo-China, largely because of geographic position, is a mosaic of races for it was the meeting place of the civilizations of China, India, and

Malaysia. Because of this, the country contains an extraordinary diversity of races, societies, languages, and civilizations. Of the 24,000,000 people in Indo-China, Annamites, numbering 17,000,000, are by far the most numerous. The Annamites occupy the richest parts of the country and their civilization is essentially Chinese. The group is industrious and one of the most civilized in Asia. Their political and social life is based on Confucianism. The Annamites engage primarily in agriculture, fishing, and artistic craftsmanship and leave to the Chinese residents the majority of trade and industry.

The most important group are the Cambodians who number 3,000,000 and live in the lower Mekong Valley. The Cambodians are devout Buddhists and are friendly and hospitable. Many of



them engage in agriculture and fishing and their diet consists primarily of rice, fish, fruit, coconut milk, and vegetables.

Other groups within French Indo-China are Laotians (600,000); Chinese (500,000); and many Indians and Chams. It is estimated that some 45,000 French reside in the country.

French Indo-China contains approximately 285,800 square miles and is made up of five political units. Ninety per cent of the inhabitants are rural. There is a wide difference in the population density and the range varies from 1,500 people per square mile in the Tonkin Delta to fifteen people per square mile in some of the inhospitable mountain sections.

#### HISTORY

Marco Polo, who returned to Europe about 1295, was probably the first European to see Indo-China. Approximately four centuries later, several Spanish, French, and Portuguese traders and missionaries reached Indo-China and remained for varying periods of time. A French Jesuit, Alexandre de Rhodes, pioneered on the jutting peninsula and Pierre Poivre traveled extensively in the country as a representative of the La Compagnie des Indes.

France first gained trading concessions in Indo-China during the period of 1802-1820 and traded

with the population until antforeignism was aroused, particularly against the French and Spanish, from 1850 to 1858. In the latter year, France and Spain decided to send an expeditionary force under Admiral Rigault de Genouilly to Indo-China and several important towns were shelled and occupied. Nine years later, the French seized control of and occupied Cochinchina.

French rule during the first decades was not a success for France ignored the fact that Annamite institutions had come about from a long cultural and religious development. The French assimilation policy imposed on the country arose from the desire to unite the colony with the mother country and to push to the background the native institutions and customs and to substitute those of France.

The policy of assimilation which led to disorders and revolt was largely scrapped in 1880 by de Lanessan who insisted that the traditions of the natives be respected and their political institutions restored. The establishment of an educational system, the enlargement of native political rights, and the introduction of a policy of being more careful of Annamite interests improved relationships considerably.

By 1887 the Indo-China Union came into being by a decree placing the colony of Cochinchina and



RUINS OF THE FAMOUS ANGKOR WAT TEMPLE

Courtesy Ewing Galloway

the three protectorates of Annam, Tonkin, and Cambodia under the authority of a Governor General who was responsible to the Ministry of Colonies, later known as the Ministry of Overseas France. The Governor General was the representative of metropolitan France in Indo-China, and in addition to important legislative and financial powers, was responsible for the internal and foreign security of the Union. Among the foremost Governors General who have furthered the development of the Confederacy have been Paul Doumer (1897-1902); Albert Sarraut (1911-1914, 1917-1919); and Pierre Pasquier (1928-1934).

While originally composed of the colony of Cochinchina and three protectorates, Annam, Tonkin, and Cambodia, the Union increased to five subdivisions in 1889 when Laos joined the Federation. As time passed, the five components of the Union were subdivided into eighty-seven provinces under the jurisdiction of Administrators.

#### CLIMATE AND TOPOGRAPHY

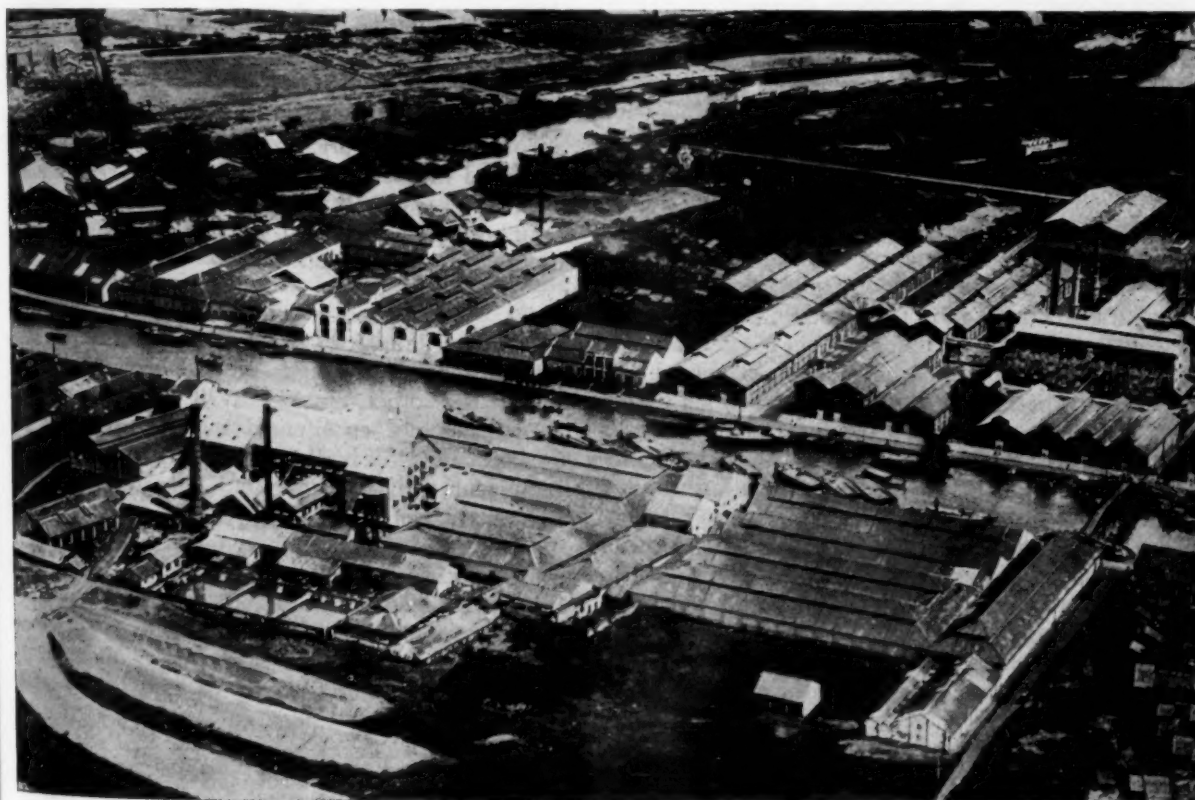
French Indo-China, like many other Asiatic countries, is characterized by two seasons, one rainy and hot and the other dry and relatively cool. Seasons change with the wind. When the wind is from the southwest from April to October, there are heavy

rainfalls which are frequently the cause of floods. The dry season occurs during the November-March period when wind direction is reversed.

Changes in temperature are greater in the northern sections of the country than in the southern regions. June is the hottest season of the year in the French colony and temperatures of 115 degrees have been recorded. During this rainy season, particularly along the Annam coast, violent typhoons, originating east of the Philippines, periodically cause untold devastation. Typhoons most frequently occur in August and September and the high winds often produce tidal waves.

Mountains occupy more than half of the 285,800 square miles of territory with the chains running southeast to northwest. Many peaks rise to the height of several thousand feet with the highest elevation being 10,306 feet. Perhaps the most striking feature is the extreme contrast between the sparsely settled mountain regions and the heavily populated, fertile, and extensively cultivated lowlands.

Within French Indo-China flow several important rivers although the Mekong which crosses the country from north to south is by far the most strategic. The Red River, the Black River, the Claire, and other small rivers are important insofar as the economy is concerned for portions of them are navigable



INDUSTRIAL SECTION, CHOLON, FRENCH INDO-CHINA

*Courtesy Ewing Galloway*

and are used to float timber to mills and to transport supplies and equipment.

One important lake, the Great Lake (Tonle-Sap), located in central Cambodia, is one of the finest of fishing grounds and the lake further serves as a reservoir for the Mekong, which flows for 1900 miles.

Geographically speaking, French Indo-China contains two great delta regions, one to the south stretching over large sections of Cambodia and Cochinchina and the other to the north in Tonkin but only about one-fourth the size of the Cambodia Delta.

#### AGRICULTURE

Rice is the great staple of this nation and the foundation of the national economy. Rice constitutes about 80 per cent of the food of the inhabitants, amounts to 75 per cent of the agricultural production of the country, and prior to 1941 accounted for three-fifths of the exports. French Indo-China, before the national economy of the world was upset by war, had become the third rice-growing country of the world. In 1937 the country produced 6,310,000 tons of rice, cultivated 5,612,000 hectares (one hectare equals 2.47 acres), and exported 1,547,000 tons.

The French Administration has taken vigorous steps to improve the economic position of French Indo-China. Rice production increased 90 per cent from 1900 to 1913 and 34 per cent from 1913 to 1937. Because of national dependency upon the one basic crop, maize was introduced and the production of sweet potatoes, soy beans, and tapioca stimulated.

Cotton, kapok, tea, and pepper are now grown extensively throughout the country while at the beginning of the century, these products were not grown within the boundaries. Intensive small-scale rice farming stands out in marked contrast to the large rubber, coffee, and tea plantations.

Cultivated land occupies about 15 per cent of French Indo-China and the best farming lands are situated in the heavily farmed deltas formed by the rivers. Until recently, the average peasant resorted to what might be termed primitive cultivation methods which included insufficient fertilization, limited use of mechanized equipment and poor crop rotation. The French have strived to improve this situation but have not been able to solve the vexing problem of rural credit which continues to harass the Indo-China economy.

Closely linked to agriculture and of some importance is cattle breeding. By far the most important domestic animal is the water buffalo. Admirably equipped physically to withstand the rigors of the tropical climate the strong but slow moving animal is indispensable to the farmer. Natives not only use the heavy buffalo to cultivate fields but the animal

is a source of meat. The French have introduced sheep and goats but milk is not usually part of the native diet.

#### RESOURCES

Natural resources of French Indo-China are considerable but largely undeveloped for the native population since early times has relied upon agriculture, mainly rice production, to obtain a livelihood. The Chinese residents led the way in exploitation of mineral resources until the French assumed leadership in this field about two decades ago.

The basic raw materials required for heavy industry are available within the colony. Hydroelectric power is available as many of the swiftly flowing rivers can be harnessed. Rubber, timber, vegetable oils and textiles which are necessary for light industry are found in abundance and the fact is that French Indo-China is perhaps best equipped of all the Southeastern Asiatic countries to support industrialization.

Excellent hard coal is mined in the north and in 1937, the last year that accurate statistics were available, the coal tonnage reached the total of 2,300,000 metric tons. Other minerals are iron, manganese, tin, zinc, chromium, tungsten, and antimony.

As nearly 40 per cent of French Indo-China is forested, timber cutting is an important industry. Teak, bamboo, and cam-lai are among the varieties of woods and furnish the wherewithal for construction, boat building, and furniture making. During the early history of the country, nomadic tribes deforested some wooded areas but in recent years a Forestry Service organized by the government has protected the valuable tracts of timber. By-products produced from lumber consisting of lacquer, camphor, turpentine, and indigo are important items in the national economy.

#### INDUSTRY

Modern industry, primarily manufacturing, is limited to textiles, sugar production, rice milling and a few other, but relatively minor industries. France has not encouraged manufacturing in her colonies and most of the native inhabitants are more competent and contented in tilling the soil.

Industry has centered, as in other nations, near the larger centers of population. Saigon, one of the principal cities of French Indo-China, resembles a French city in many ways and contains a population of some 140,000 people about 8 per cent of whom are French. Other large cities are Cholon, Hanoi, Haiphong, and Pnom Penh all of which have in excess of 100,000 residents.

#### FACTS AND FIGURES

*Irrigation*—Improvement during recent years in the French Indo-China economy may be attributed



in a large measure to the drainage and irrigation works constructed by the government along the Red and Mekong Rivers. The cultivation of rice, dependent upon an adequate supply of water, has been many times increased by the man-made water ditches.

When the French first began irrigation construction, they found in operation canals with a capacity of some 20,000,000 cubic meters. By 1938 the system had increased more than four-fold and to an estimated 87,000,000 cubic meters. Particularly extensive developments were carried out in Cochin-China which has made this area one of the world's richest rice granaries.

*Transportation*—Of the money spent during the period from 1920 to 1939, approximately 60 per cent went for the construction of roads, railroads, and bridges. French Indo-China has about 19,000 miles of highways of which about one-half is suitable for heavy motor transportation. At the outbreak of the Second World War in September 1939, there were some 20,000 automobiles in operation in the country and despite war conditions a majority are probably still in use.

The French constructed 2,100 miles of railroad and it was over the Haiphong-Kunming railroad that thousands of tons of supplies flowed to China prior to seizure of French Indo-China by Japanese forces. At one time, tonnage reached the 40,000 mark per month. The most important railroad follows the coast from north to south with two main anchorages at Saigon and Hanoi although the tracks run to the south and north of the respective cities. A newly constructed line now connects Pnom Penh in the southwest with Thailand.

Just as the Chinese rely on the Yellow and Yangtze rivers and the Burmese on the Sittang, Salween, and Irrawaddy for transportation so do the Annamites and Cambodians rely upon the Mekong, Red, and other smaller streams for much of their transportation. The Red River has 275 miles of navigable waters and the lower Mekong bears a heavy traffic although its central section contains numerous rapids. Saigon, in southern Indo-China, is forty miles from the coast but has direct water connections to the China Sea.

Principal harbor of northern Indo-China is Haiphong which is some fifty miles east of the populous city of Hanoi. In normal times, steamships made the run from Haiphong to Marseilles via Capetown in twenty-five or twenty-six days.

*Education*—Missionaries were the first to bring western or occidental educational methods and subject matter to French Indo-China. As education of this nature was introduced to supplement native

training, there was little if any conflict of ideas. The introduction of the French assimilation policy presented a new difficulty which eventually crystallized itself into unrest and dissatisfaction. Steeped and deeply-rooted Annamite and Cambodian traditions did not give way, and the French governmental policy of making French out of the inhabitants of Indo-China failed.

During interwar years, 1919-1939, the reestablishment of the village vernacular schools and the readaptation of the school programs to the languages, customs, and traditions of the different ethnic groups contributed to the solution of the difficult problem of the education of young people.

In 1938 there were 8,508 public and private schools in operation as against 6,412 in 1929. Student enrollment had likewise increased from 396,000 to 617,000. The increase in attendance came about from liberalization of admission, revisions in courses of study, and a policy of obtaining qualified teachers. At the outbreak of war, Indo-China had thirteen colleges, several specialized schools, a university, and numerous secondary schools.

*Health*—One of the major contributions of France to Indo-China has been the improvement in hygienic conditions. Government medical service was first established in 1880 and early missionaries and traders first brought Western medicine and medical ideas to this section of the world. From the beginning, living conditions in Indo-China have been complicated by a tropical climate with its variety of diseases. Ignorance, lack of good housing, and lack of adequate clothing served to further complicate the health problem.

In 1904, the French set up a medical organization to care for the residents of Indo-China and the inhabitants during the intervening years have used its facilities extensively. Particularly outstanding has been the fight of medical science against smallpox. The scientific research of the Pasteur Institute and the School of Medicine at Hanoi is world-known.

At first hesitant to utilize the services of scientists, the people overcame superstitions through the years and in 1937 alone, 6,000,000 natives were given medical examinations and 300,000 received hospitalization free of charge.

In the principal urban centers such as Saigon, Hanoi, and Haiphong, medical authorities keep a close watch on health conditions and the water supply. In recent years, the government has provided for the establishment of health resorts in the highlands to combat the general anemia and fatigue which one may acquire by constantly living in the lowlands. More than fifteen of these centers have been established.

# Implications of Children's Concepts of Time and Space

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Knowledge concerning children's concepts of time and space has been slow in accumulating and cannot be regarded as complete. Significant data have been collected, nevertheless, which are rather consistent in their implications. The content of the social studies should be re-examined in the light of indicated trends.

## TIME CONCEPTS

Lack of information among the public concerning the growth rate of time concepts has brought upon the schools some unjust criticism. Many a parent, upon discovering that his child expresses uncertainty such as to whether or not Washington preceded Grant, concludes that American schools must be "slipping." As a matter of fact, children everywhere—and not a few adults—appear to exhibit difficulty in straightening out the sequence of events. Studies of British and Polish children, in which clear conceptions of the past do not appear to emerge below eleven years of age,<sup>1</sup> show close agreement with American findings.<sup>2</sup>

There is strong evidence, offered by Pistor, that during elementary-school years this inadequacy is at least in part due to slow maturation and very little to inadequate teaching. Pistor's conclusions are of such widespread significance that some details of his investigation will be described. He studied two large groups of children, one of which pursued history and chronology in grades four, five, and six. The teachers of this group made extensive use of time charts, time lines, and similar devices. The second group was taught no history in grades four, five, and six except as it was informally introduced in connection with geography. Upon entering grade six, time-concept tests were administered to both groups, on which the pupils who received instruction in history and chronology did no better than the pupils without such instruction. Upon entering grade seven, time-concept tests were again given. Both groups showed a substantial improvement in scores this time, but again the group with no instruction in

history and chronology achieved as high an average score as the group receiving such instruction. Pistor concludes: "The evidence points heavily in favor of maturation, rather than training, as the dominating factor in time-concept development."<sup>3</sup>

The main implication of Pistor's study for the selection of historical content is that traditional emphasis on chronology is unlikely to yield the knowledge which is sought. Even in high school the traditional chronological approach has not been demonstrated as the superior one; arresting experiments have shown that nothing is lost in teaching history backwards—starting with the present and retreating into the past. One of these, in fact, suggests that there is much to be gained thereby.<sup>4</sup> It would be shallow, however, to conclude, as some have done, that there is no need for elementary-school history and that chronology may be neglected. A more accurate interpretation would be that any given historical study in the elementary school should encompass a briefer span of time than is customary, allowing the children pursuing it to dwell more leisurely and fully upon the life of a particular people. This is in conformity with the Committee on American History's proposal of "How People Live" as the emphasis for the middle grades.<sup>5</sup> The time-sense of children is best nurtured through concentration upon a single period of history, fully extracting the meaning of "once upon a time" through becoming identified with its people.

## SPATIAL CONCEPTS

The geography lesson is the traditional vehicle for developing spatial concepts. Although it has probably served its ends more effectively than traditional history has achieved the goal of accurate time concepts, geography instruction misses fire frequent-

<sup>1</sup> Described by A. T. Jersild, *Child Psychology* (New York: Prentice-Hall, 1940), p. 363.

<sup>2</sup> See F. Pistor, "How Time Concepts Are Acquired By Children," *Educational Method*, XX (1940), 107-112; K. C. Friedman, "The Growth of Time Concepts," *Social Education*, VIII (1944), 29-31.

<sup>3</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 111. Friedman's study likewise suggests the dubious value of time-lines in the elementary school. Further evidence on this point is furnished by C. O. Mathews, *The Grade Placement of Curriculum Materials* (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1926).

<sup>4</sup> C. C. Crawford and W. L. Walker, "An Experiment in Teaching History Backward," *The Historical Outlook*, XXII, 1931, 395-397; H. S. Grande, *An Experimental Evaluation of the Counter-Chronological Method of Teaching History* (Grand Forks: University of North Dakota, 1938).

<sup>5</sup> *American History in Schools and Colleges* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1944), pp. 74-76.

ly enough to justify a re-examination of its content.<sup>6</sup>

Observation of the block play of children often yields clues. "Sidewalks" and adjoining "stores" and "streets" are sometimes constructed with wide spaces of floor between them as though the three were non-contiguous. "Islands" may be found with a foot of floor between them and the edges of the oilcloth "water." Such construction does not necessarily denote lack of intelligence. It can almost always be traced to a lack of experience with the relationships involved. The author recently was asked to help a group of third-grade children who had spent several fruitless weeks in working with maps of the United States. It was soon discovered that one reason they were making no headway was because many of them lacked the bird's-eye-view concept. They were unable to draw, for example, a bird's-eye view of a book lying upon the floor. It was necessary for some of the children to mount a chair and look down upon the book and to compare several sketches of books drawn from different positions before "bird's-eye view" as a concept became intelligible. So far as the growth of their spatial concepts was concerned, these children required trips to points at various elevations to view the neighborhood, informal sketching, construction of floor plans, and diagrams and models showing how various members of the class walked to school each day. The emphasis of their geography upon a two-dimensional map—one of the more difficult symbols a child must come to understand—was obviously introduced prematurely.

Another common confusion is in connection with distances. One boy prattles easily about the ninety-three million miles between the earth and the sun, yet cannot tell his father, when the latter parks his car, at what time the rear bumper has cleared the required few feet from the fireplug. Terms such as *mile* and *acre* are to many children indefinite expressions of magnitude. Most twelve-year-olds apparently do not know how long it takes them to walk a mile.<sup>7</sup>

<sup>6</sup>The low status of geographical concepts among children is revealed by C. O. Mathews, *The Grade Placement of Curriculum Materials*, and National Society for the Study of Education, *Thirty-Second Yearbook* (Bloomington, Ill.: Public School Publishing Company, 1933), Ch. XXIX.

<sup>7</sup>A. T. Jersild, *Child Psychology*, p. 353.

Children who are thus uninitiated in the precision of measurement and unconcerned about it are by no means ready for computing the scale of maps, for memorizing areas, and for dealing with such items as the speed of stage coaches in terms of miles per hour.

A third source of confusion relates to direction. Children have a tendency to imagine the cardinal directions correspond to their bodily position.<sup>8</sup> A substantial number of them do not know the direction of the rising sun, the setting moon, or the Rocky Mountains.<sup>9</sup> Yet these same children as like as not are kept well occupied at school in deciphering the meaning of parallels, zones, hemispheres, and other directional concepts, from map projections on which the shortest distance between two points is a curved line. It is no wonder that we find children thinking of North as up, and fail to see how a river like the Nile can flow both down and North at the same time.

The prevalence of children's errors in map work and other spatial misconceptions is a good illustration of what happens when primary matters are glossed over. It should be evident that geographical content needs to draw more largely upon the region which children can most readily observe. Abundant opportunity should be provided for the consolidation of geographical experiences through the manipulation of blocks, and through pencils, paints, and other media. Through estimating and measuring their own speeds and distances children may gain important insight into the relationship between time and space and the magnitude of various units of distance. Making home-made compasses, and experimenting, testing, and playing with them should be standard school experiences. Vicarious exploration of space through globes and maps should certainly be abundant and would be many times richer in meaning to elementary-school pupils if more time during the first three grades were devoted to the geography of regions that can be observed without the intermediary of symbols.

<sup>8</sup>F. E. Lord, "A Study of Spatial Orientation of Children," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXXIV (March, 1941), 481-505.

<sup>9</sup>A. T. Jersild, *Child Psychology*, p. 353.



# The Personnel of a State Congressional Delegation: Illinois

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Looking upon the Congress of the United States as a legislative laboratory, its members may fairly be called laboratory technicians. Unlike the head of a scientific research institution, Uncle Sam makes no inquiries as to the training or experience of his assistants beyond the constitutional provisions regarding age, citizenship, and the satisfaction of local electoral requirements. Congressional personnel, therefore, is determined largely by the chance of birth, environment, education, and business and political experience in the local area. A new member going to Washington is mainly the product of the interaction of these factors.

Large sections of the contemporary press are wont to look askance at Congress and all its works, and serious students of political affairs not infrequently stop to wonder whether our legislative machine is adequate to the tasks imposed upon it. In view of this situation it should prove interesting and perhaps instructive to examine somewhat in detail a small segment of the congressional circle over a considerable period of time as a basis for forming an opinion as to the sort of individuals who have been and are being sent to make the country's laws. For this purpose, Illinois has been chosen as fairly typical of the rural Middle West with its strong tincture of urban life since the development of Chicago into a city of major magnitude. Sending its first delegation in 1819, the career of Illinois in the Union covers a major portion of its existence, and the 292 members who have represented her from the beginning through the year 1925 have participated in the solution of a majority of national problems. This article aims, first, to present in summary form the equipment of training and experience brought to the governmental problem by this group; then, to create out of this, a picture of the "typical" congressman; and, finally, to range this mythical individual alongside certain flesh-and-blood members who were prominent in the Illinois delegation as a comparison between the actual and the synthetic.<sup>1</sup>

Examination of the birthplaces of the group gives results to be expected of representatives of a young and growing community.<sup>2</sup> Twenty-six states, the

District of Columbia, and ten foreign countries contributed to the total, exhibiting at once the tendency of the old world to seek the new and of the new to seek the horizon. These separate trickles of migration uniting in a common center portray at once a desire to be rid of European restraints and a craving for freer opportunity in a developing community. Together they form a footnote to the chapter of the new *Volkerwanderung* of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Illinois, herself, as might be expected, contributed the largest quota to the total.<sup>3</sup> Next in line comes New York, followed by Kentucky (particularly in the early years of statehood), Ohio, Pennsylvania, Indiana, Virginia, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Maryland and Massachusetts, indicative of the double stream of migration which peopled the states created from the Northwest Territory. It is significant also that few offshoots of the "new" immigration have as yet mounted the political ladder to the level of the national legislature, the majority of the twenty-two foreign-born delegates claiming nativity in Great Britain, Scandinavia, and the older Germanic states.

The level of education attained by the group has been rather high considering the status of learning in the country as a whole during the long period covered.<sup>4</sup> Altogether 154 reached schools of collegiate grade and forty-five took advanced work in schools of law. Twenty pursued graduate or professional studies, and of these, eleven received the degree of M.A., for the most part earned rather than honorary. Sixty confessed to the limitations of a "public" or "common" school education and forty-seven attended high school or academy. Twenty-eight neglected to leave an adequate record of their scholastic attainments; one was "educated in the school of hard

of facts concerning the members is *A Biographical Congressional Directory* down to 1911 and sessional directories after that date. The electioneering press and the mellifluous obituaries are also fruitful sources of information. The number of individuals considered renders impossible specific reference to each, as the summary method of treatment renders it largely unnecessary; therefore such will be omitted save in special instances.

<sup>2</sup> It is worth noting, however, that it was not until the mid-nineties that Illinois began to contribute a significant percentage of her own delegation; down to that time the great majority were born elsewhere.

<sup>4</sup> See Table II.

<sup>1</sup> The study covers the Illinois delegations from the Sixteenth through the Sixty-eighth Congresses, March, 1819-March, 1925.

<sup>2</sup> See Table I. The most useful and complete compendium

knocks" (W. H. Hinebaugh), and one "never attended school" (William F. Lorimer). These figures are of course subject to several qualifications.

The term "college" is an elastic one and it is not always possible to draw the line between a self-dubbed higher institution and a preparatory school. Furthermore the content of the term itself has changed. Those of the early days who proudly boasted degrees from Yale, Bowdoin, Dartmouth, and Harvard could by no means be said to have received a training equivalent to their successors of a generation or two later. The same distinctions must also be made in the realm of secondary education. And in the last analysis an "education" is no more a guarantee of success in politics and statesmanship than in any other line of endeavor. The "blond boss," who never went to school, directed the political destinies and commanded the votes of men with university degrees. Stephen A. Douglas, who was for years recognized as the outstanding figure of the senate; Lyman Trumbull, the delegation's leading candidate for the laurels of the statesman; and Joseph G. Cannon, its dean in point of service and long honored with the doubtful title of autocrat of the house, had only secondary school education.

There is, in the foregoing, however, no thought of belittling the value of schooling as a preparation for public service. The University of Illinois and Union College of Law undoubtedly helped to make James R. Mann the most constructive legislator and the keenest critic of the group; Henry Sherman Boutell was a better man for his training at Northwestern, followed by an M.A. from Harvard; and it may be that the University of Virginia augmented James Hamilton Lewis's vocabulary. Altogether the delegation fared quite well in the matter of book learning and in addition carried with it a deal of native ability sharpened into acuteness by the rough-and-tumble of local politics to be considered later.

Examination of the occupational background offers striking proof of the generally accepted statement that the law offers its devotees the broadest road to political preferment in American life. No less than 204 claimed this as their profession, followed in line by eight newspapermen, a like number of bankers, seven farmers, six merchants, five teachers, four manufacturers and so on down a bewildering list.<sup>5</sup> Any attempt to classify the group according to occupation is more or less arbitrary and the attached table tries merely to group the members according to what appears to have been their dominant economic activity.

The lines cross and recross and one line leads into another. The would-be jurist teaches school while reading Blackstone; the lawyer becomes a corpora-

tion counsel; the newspaperman combines that craft with the law; the successful stone merchant and contractor become bankers. The faithful party worker catches a plum when the tree is shaken. Sooner or later all are bitten by the political bacillus and in many cases what had been a life-work becomes merely a means of gratifying a taste for public office or an urge to public service. The situation is further complicated by the comparatively large number whose main life interest has been politics and who have spent years in climbing the ladder, with economic interests largely secondary. In these two classes, men of means with a desire for office, and the professional politician, are to be found a high percentage, probably a third, of the entire number. With these qualifications a study of the background of occupation is still valuable in laying another brick in the basis of group experience. Varying interests made for latitude of ability and of problems attacked by the delegation. Finally, the combination of widely variant educational and occupational status offers an illustration of the somewhat threadbare patriotic boast that the door of political opportunity is open in America to him who knocks—provided he but knock long and loudly enough.

It now becomes necessary to examine some of the ways in which the members have knocked at this door and had it opened. Again one is impressed by the variety of political experience of individuals and of the group.<sup>6</sup> In the table an attempt has been made to give as complete a picture as possible, and it presents a composite view of the delegation's experience rather than an individual record as in the preceding cases. It is found that the great majority have worked up to Congress through the apprenticeship of one or more minor offices requiring strong party connections, considerable regularity and equal activity in the party's interest. It has been impossible to discover the exact participation and factional connections of many individuals in local affairs. The fact, however, that they secured and held local and state offices confirms the indications of available facts. Neither is it safe to infer that because a person held no office before going to Washington, or because the records show no sign that he was active for the party (there are sixty-three such in the group) he became a Congressman overnight. Fortunately or unfortunately, much party work never finds the printed page, and the rewards of yeoman service are not always found in public office.

Turning to the known data, we find that the most common type of positions held antecedent to a congressional election was membership in one or other house of the state legislature or a non-political office under state or city, the latter, however, dependent

<sup>5</sup> See Table III.

<sup>6</sup> See Table IV.

directly on party activity and availability. Ninety-one helped to make Illinois laws from the lower house, forty-six from the senate, and eighteen sat in both houses. A total of 150 holders of such offices as police justice, justice of the peace, commissioner of public works, postmaster, state's attorney, or state and federal judgeships were later sent to Washington. After these in order come leaders in the state or local party machinery, aldermen, members of state constitutional conventions, former presidential electors, ex-mayors and ex-members of county boards. Another interesting and important fact to be noted is the number of cases in which political apprenticeship extended through more than one grade of minor offices. Fifty-one served in both legislative and administrative offices, twenty combined legislative and judicial experience, and nineteen had been judges and administrators of one sort or another.

The foregoing examination serves to show some at least of the more important rounds of the political ladder which leads to Washington, and to predicate on the part of the members considerable familiarity with the technique of a certain sort of political activity. It also raises a question as to the efficiency of such training as a preparation for participation in national legislation. Another query presents itself as to the ability of these men, schooled in state and local politics, to place the needs of nation and of locality in proper perspective when transplanted to the larger arena.

Before concluding this discussion of personnel, it may be well to attempt a few more detailed descriptions in an effort to arrive at a clearer picture of the group and its components. First of all, let us try to visualize the typical member, who might be constructed if legs and arms, education and experience could be drawn from some bin and synthesized into a Congressman. He would be a man in the mid-forties,<sup>7</sup> born outside of Illinois and drawn thither by wanderlust, business prospects, or some foresight of the future of the locality. His forty-odd years would have seen him through an education progressing past the high-school stage and into the college and university. Some part of this training, whether in school or in an office, would have been devoted to the law and our Congressman would be at least nominally a member of that profession, though the chances are that other interests had usurped a large portion of his attention. Nevertheless, he would have a certain foundation of legal principles and pattern. If our manikin were not a lawyer, there is no way of providing him with an occupation, since followers

of other lines are so scattering as to make generalization impossible.

His schooling finished and life-work started, he entered the field of local politics and by virtue of industry, connections or good fortune or a combination of these got himself chosen to a minor administrative or legislative post. This he filled with such industry or acceptability as to commend him to a group in the community or to those who pulled the strings of party machinery. The reward was a transfer to another post a step or two higher in the scale which in turn was filled to the satisfaction of the people or the powers. As a final reward for service rendered he was sent to Washington, where he stayed for about six years as a member of one of the houses of the federal legislature.<sup>8</sup> To his duties as a legislator he therefore brought a fair degree of education, a strong party allegiance and a considerable amount of political experience of a sort.

Having constructed this hypothetical individual, it may be interesting in conclusion to range him alongside some of the flesh-and-blood members of the delegation. This will perhaps show the relation between the average and the actual. The men chosen for this measuring process are Shelby M. Cullom, the dean of the delegation's representation in the Senate and for years a power in railroad legislation; Mann, the most useful member of the House delegation; Cannon, the veteran of the House group and long its leader; and Lorimer, a professional politician who transferred his activities from Chicago and Illinois to Washington and came to grief thereby.

Cullom was born in Kentucky and after receiving a preparatory and university education studied law. He soon became city attorney of Springfield, Illinois, and was chosen to the unimportant office of presidential elector. Thence it was but a step to the lower house of the state legislature where he tarried long enough to become familiar with the state aspect of railroad regulation and to become speaker of the House. He then served three terms in the House of Representatives, entering at the age of 36. After an interval during which he was chosen governor of Illinois he returned to the Senate where he served for thirty years.

Cannon was born in North Carolina, secured a preparatory education followed by a period spent in study of the law, and entered politics by becoming state's attorney, the only position he held before going to Washington at the age of 37 to enter upon a term of service which lasted, with occasional interruptions, for over forty years.

<sup>7</sup> The average age of 282 of the members at the opening of their terms of service was 44.38 years. The extremes are D. P. Cook, one of the early members who entered at 24, and Senator J. M. Palmer, who was 74 when he took his seat.

<sup>8</sup> See Table V. For purposes of computation the two-year term of a Congress has been used as the unit of measurement. This breaks one senatorial term into three congressional terms. Fractional terms have also been counted as entire terms.



Mann was born in Illinois, graduated from its state university and the Union College of Law in Chicago. As a young lawyer he identified himself with the village of Hyde Park and became its attorney. So well did he conduct the duties of this office that when the village was incorporated into the city of Chicago he became the first alderman to represent the new ward. In the council he distinguished himself for honesty in an era when municipal graft was more than usually rampant, rose to power in his party and was sent to Washington in 1897 at the age of 41 to spend there all his working days until his death in 1922.

Lorimer was born in Manchester, England, and came to this country at an early age, growing up in Chicago without formal education. He worked in the stockyards and on the street-cars, became a ward politician, secured a place as police court constable, and was later made superintendent of the city water office, after which he became a contractor. His strength was originally based on his ability to deliver the vote of certain southwest side wards on convention day. This was continually increased through his personal activity and the patronage which he was able to control as party boss, and he was finally able to demand and receive from the party the nomination which sent him to Washington at the age of 34.<sup>9</sup>

These random illustrations tend to clothe the manikin with a semblance of reality. Between them they approximate the dimensions indicated by the average. This average, the detailed figures indicate, has been a fairly well-educated individual, rather experienced in things political; probably as well-equipped for the business of national legislation as can well be expected by the methods of choice and preferment now in vogue; certainly as well-equipped as experience in the local arena can make him for service in the national.

TABLE I  
NATIVITY

American-born:	
Illinois	94
New York	35
Kentucky	28
Ohio	18
Pennsylvania	13
Indiana	11
Virginia	9
New Hampshire	8
Connecticut	7
Maryland	7
Massachusetts	6
Vermont	5
Maine	3
New Jersey	3
Tennessee	2
Rhode Island	2
Mississippi	2

<sup>9</sup> A Biographical Congressional Directory, p. 817; Chicago Times-Herald, Feb. 10, 24, 1896; Chicago Tribune, Jan. 7, 1897.

Iowa	2
Minnesota	2
Michigan	2
North Carolina	2
Georgia	1
South Carolina	1
West Virginia	1
Wisconsin	1
Delaware	1
D.C.	1
Undiscoverable	3
Total	270

Foreign-born:

Ireland	7
England	3
Canada	3
Denmark	2
Bohemia	2
Baden	1
Hanover	1
Austria	1
Sweden	1
Norway	1
Total	22

TABLE II  
EDUCATION

College, university and professional school	154
Elementary	60
High School and academy	47
Uncertain or no data obtainable	28
Never attended school	1
Private tuition	1
Self-educated	1
Total	292

Based on highest grade of institution attended, whether graduated or not.

TABLE III  
OCCUPATION

Lawyer	204
Newspaperman	8
Banker	8
Farmer	7
Merchant	6
Teacher	5
Manufacturer	4
Contractor	4
Business	4
Iron business	3
Minister	2
Insurance	2
Advertising	2
Stone business	2
Liquor business	2
Physician	2
Miner	1
Actor-manager	1
Clerk	1
Railroading	1
Lumber business	1
Shipper	1
Wholesaler	1
Teaming	1
Bookkeeper	1
Tobacco dealer	1
G.A.R. worker	1
Gas & electricity	1
Stockyards worker	1
Housewife	1
None discoverable	13
Total	292

In cases where several occupations have been pursued the seemingly predominant one has been chosen for this computation.

TABLE IV  
PREVIOUS POLITICAL ACTIVITY

State legislature	
Upper house	46
Lower house	91
Both houses	18
Total	155
Non-political offices dependent on political activity	
Administrative	111
Judicial	39
Total	150
Active in party management	24
City council	22
State constitutional convention	20
Presidential elector	20
Mayor	15
County board	10
Governor	8
"Held local offices"	6
No previous office, or none discoverable	62
Combinations:	
Administrative and Legislative	51
Judicial and Legislative	20
Judicial and Administrative	19
Executive and Legislative	8

Executive and Administrative	6
Executive and Judicial	2

The first column digests the official positions and political activity of the members as far as records are available. It records duplications where an individual held more than one position.

The second column indicates the more important types of duplication of activity where members have worked up through several types of minor offices.

TABLE V  
TERMS SERVED

110 served	1 term
61	2 terms
38	3 "
25	4 "
13	5 "
12	6 "
7	7 "
5	8 "
6	9 "
8	10 "
2	11 "
1	12 "
2	13 "
1	19 "
1	23 "

This includes fractional terms and counts one term in the senate as three terms in the House.

## Visual and Other Aids

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The effectiveness of a teaching aid depends in large measure upon how the aid is utilized by the teacher. It is of interest, therefore, to learn how competent teachers who have had considerable experience in the utilization of radio broadcasts actually manage the presentation of programs in the classroom. A few years ago staff members of the Radio Division of the Bureau of Educational Research at the Ohio State University carried on a project aimed at finding this out.<sup>1</sup>

A check list of 101 "utilization practices" was constructed with the aid of a group of teachers in New York, Illinois, Michigan, and California who had shown an interest and ability in the use of radio for instructional purposes. The check list contained items in three categories: (1) preparatory activities; (2) activities during the broadcasts; (3) follow-up activities; and (4) physical conditions of room and equipment. During the school year 1938-39, a group

of teachers made 205 separate reports by means of this check list on their radio utilization practices.

The most frequently listed preparatory activities were the rather obvious measures of posting an advance announcement of the broadcast and making necessary seating arrangements. Among the activities intended to make the program more meaningful were consulting the manual accompanying the broadcast and attempting to follow its suggestions and attempting to correlate the probable broadcast content with regular class activities. There were frequent discussions of questions relating to the topic of the program, oral summaries by students of what they already knew about the topic, and assigned readings from newspapers, magazines, or books relating to the program topic.

The most frequent teacher activity during broadcasts was listening attentively to the program as a member of the audience. The second most frequent activity was maintaining as near absolute quiet as possible in the classroom. More than half the teachers took notes and most of them allowed students to do likewise if they wished. About one-quarter of the

<sup>1</sup> The results, as reported in the remainder of this article, were described in an article by Norman Woelfel and Kimball Wiles entitled "How Teachers Use School Broadcasts," appearing in the *Educational Research Bulletin*, December 13, 1944.

teachers required pupils to take notes. Another practice reported by some teachers was listing on the blackboard key words or new words which appeared in the broadcast.

The most common follow-up activities were those designed to fix program content in the pupils' memories. The most frequent activity was having students retell the parts of the program that they found most interesting. Next to this in frequency was questioning by the teacher with respect to specific details of the broadcast. An attempt to promote discrimination was often made by having students discuss good and bad features of the program or compare the program with other school and out-of-school broadcasts. Very few of the follow-up activities involved much pupil planning and execution. Students were seldom encouraged to write radio scripts on similar topics, stage make-believe broadcasts, take action to solve problems posed by the broadcast, or carry on experimentation to settle questions raised. It would appear that the failure of teachers to make use of such activities seriously detracts from the most effective use of radio broadcasts.

So far as physical conditions were concerned, it was found that in most cases teachers used table-model radios located in their classrooms. In very few cases did static, fading, or school noises seriously interfere with reception.

#### NEWS NOTES

The December, 1944, issue of *Education* is entirely devoted to the educational use of radio. It contains several articles by authorities in the field and reprints of some outstanding radio scripts. These scripts include *They Burned the Books* by Stephen Vincent Benét, *The American Story: Episode Number Ten* by Archibald McLeish, and *It's Human Nature* by Margaret Mead and A. Murray Dyer. These scripts are all excellent and would furnish rich material for classroom or assembly dramatizations. Public performances cannot be given without permission from the copyright holders.

Social studies teachers who wish to use films on Sweden should write to the Swedish Travel Information Bureau, 630 Fifth Avenue, New York 20, for a film list, order blanks and the names of regional distributors. Among the more interesting titles listed are *Child Welfare in Sweden*, *Swedes at Work and Play*, *Life in Stockholm*, and *Swedish Industries*.

In addition to its regular catalog, the YMCA Motion Picture Bureau, 10 South LaSalle Street, Chicago 3, has available for free distribution *Classified Film Lists*. The lists present eleven broad educational topics (such as civics and history, religion, science, war, etc.) and suggest films that are suitable

for use under each topic. The suggested films are confined largely to those available from the Motion Picture Bureau. The lists should prove helpful to teachers who are searching for new titles in any of the categories listed.

"Lend Lease" and "Congress" are the subjects of Numbers 1 and 2 of Volume X of *Building America*. Single copies of these issues may be secured for 30 cents by writing to *Building America*, 2 West 45th Street, New York City.

Castle Distributors Corp., Field Building, 135 So. LaSalle Street, Chicago 3, announce a new sound film entitled *The Weasel*. This is a 16 mm. color film, 10 minutes in length, which depicts the new type of armored car by this name which is now seeing service on all fronts with our armed forces.

Teachers should write to the Bettman Archive, 211A East 57th Street, New York 22, for free literature describing pictures available for classroom use. The Bettman Archive specializes in furnishing pictures for textbooks, but most of their materials are available in 8" x 10" enlargements for wall or bulletin board display or other uses. The Archive has historical pictures on inventions, industries, historical events, and a variety of other social studies topics.

Recent Erpi films which have been released by Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago 6, include *Housing in America*, *The West Indies*, *Central America*, *Colombia*, and *Venezuela*.

Social studies teachers should be familiar with *Resource Units on Problems in American Life* published by the National Council for the SOCIAL STUDIES and the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington 6. Each unit is an up-to-date analysis of a current social, economic, or political problem. Teaching methods and aids are also treated. Source units cost 30 cents for individual copies and 20 cents on orders of 100 or more. Units are now available on twenty-one different problems.

The United Nations Information Office, 610 Fifth Avenue, New York 20, has compiled the second yearly issue of the *United Nations Film Catalogue*. This catalogue lists 16 and 35 mm. films on the United Nations and indicates the sources from which they may be secured.

*The Amazon Awakens* is an excellent Walt Disney color film which tells the story of the Amazon River basin, its history, industrial progress and possibilities for the future. This film is being distributed by The Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, Motion Picture Division, 444 Madison Avenue, New York. Write them for the names of depositories nearest you.



One of the larger commercial film distributors, Walter O. Gutlohn, has taken an important step by developing a new-type catalog that is intended specifically as a film-selection guide for teachers. The catalog is comprised of three sections. The first section lists films selected and evaluated by a number of curricular panels composed of education specialists. The second section lists films approved by the Wilson Film Catalog, the Association of School Film Libraries, Teacher Committees of Indiana University and other organizations and individuals. The third section contains recently released subjects together with other carefully selected films which have not yet been reviewed by any educational film evaluation committee.

Write to Stromberg-Carlson, 100 Carlson Road, Rochester, New York, for a free pamphlet entitled *The Sound System in Education*. This pamphlet suggests new uses for records, pupil broadcasts, and other auditory aids.

In an article in *The Business Education World*,

November, 1944, E. Dana Gibson lists a number of criteria for selecting teaching aids, preparatory activities, presentation, follow-up, and evaluation. This article is of general interest and will be useful to social studies teachers. You may also want to read "Film Guide for Business Teachers" in the December, 1944, and January and February, 1945, issues of *The Journal of Business Education*. These articles are devoted to an extensive bibliography on visual education.

Write to the Department of Radio, Du Pont Company, Wilmington 98, Delaware, to be placed on the mailing list to receive a weekly pamphlet giving advance facts on the radio series *Cavalcade of America*.

*You and the People* is a 21-minute sound film produced by Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer. It is one of the "Crime Does Not Pay" series. It deals with the machinations of a corrupt city political machine. For a list of rental sources write to Teaching Film Custodians, 25 West 43rd Street, New York 18.

## News and Comment

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### POSTWAR CURRICULUM

Mention was made all too briefly, last month, of Franklin Bobbitt's article in the February number of *The School Review* on "The Postwar Curriculum: The Functional Versus the Academic Plan." Professor Bobbitt completed his essay in the March number, with "The Postwar Curriculum: The Superiority of the Functional Plan." It is an outstanding, clarifying contribution from the pen of a noted educator.

It seems beyond a doubt to Professor Bobbitt that a functional program of education is superior to an academic one. Schools use the functional plan when society insists upon competence. Because people are expected to be able to read, write, compute, measure, and perform other everyday techniques, the schools teach them functionally. Similarly, society understands, values, and desires efficient doctors, printers, engineers, secretaries. Their proficiency is acquired through functional learning. The school coaches, who train the teams use the functional method. "When functioning is the objective, the method, the result, and the test, it is the functional plan of education that is employed."

Seemingly the functional plan is followed when proficiency is the goal. But in areas of life other than

the performance areas may not a different plan be as good? No, said Professor Bobbitt. The reason we do not use the functional program in all areas is that we do not know just what we are after. Often the school is at a loss because society itself is confused. For instance, the public does not agree on what is good citizenship. At the same time the public at large is more interested in personal, class, party, sect, or other narrow group concerns than in the well-being of society as a whole. The public is not anxious to perform its real civic functions. So the children do not serve their apprenticeship in citizenship in the schools and do not gain there a proficiency as functioning citizens. In this area functioning has not become "the objective, the method, the result, and the test."

The same holds true for other areas, such as education for health care, for home life, and for character-building leisure. These are fields for doing no less than such other fields as athletics and vocations. But we are vague and confused as yet about what is best to do and how best to do it. We operate in these more backward areas largely by "whim, wish, guess, emotion, opportunity, habit, custom, surrounding conditions, and plain ignorance. . . ."

When social practices are too diverse and contradictory to supply the effective patterns for learners,

functional objectives cannot be established. Hence the academic program flourishes, with its easy machinery of textbooks and lessons and all the rest. It is obvious that people at least need to know some science, mathematics, language, art, and so on. The inference is as obvious: By way of the textbooks "let a balanced portion of them be administered to each pupil, and he will then have what he needs in each area as occasion arises." The academic is this jerry-built type of program which is easily adapted to a state of confusion where the drive is slight.

The conclusion seems to be: Out of understanding, and of desire for what understanding sanctions, issues the functional plan of education; and out of ignorance, apathy, and blind tradition issues the academic plan.

#### PLANNING WORLD EDUCATION

Since the fall of 1942 representatives of various nations, including the United States, have been taking part in the sessions of the Conference of Ministers of Education, in London. Dean C. Mildred Thompson of Vassar College, a member of the American delegation, told of the on-going work of the Conference in "United Nations' Plans for Post-war Education," in the March 1 issue of *Foreign Policy Reports*.

The destruction wrought in this war has ruined educational plants and services in large parts of Europe. Germany, supplier of books, scientific apparatus, and other materials will probably not regain her position of educational leadership. To whom will the peoples of Europe, long dependent upon Germany educationally, now turn for their educational necessities?

Various commissions of the Conference have been studying ways and means for restoring educational and cultural facilities by way of "material aids; the restoration of art and archival materials; and the training, exchange and supply of personnel, teachers, and other professional workers." The second principal objective is "to form plans for a general inter-Allied organization for cooperation in educational and cultural matters after the war period," which would be an important part of the general international organization such as is contemplated in the Dumbarton Oaks proposals. Dean Thompson relates what is being done to attain these objectives.

The United States, thoughtful observers declare, can and should be the world's cultural and art and educational center. This country virtually is that now, and should therefore undertake educational leadership. American educational pre-eminence is undoubted, and the teachers of the nation are its standard-bearers. They will be interested in the specific educational plans of the United Nations which Dean Thompson described.

#### INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION

It has been said that the political and economic cornerstones of a world organization were laid at Dumbarton Oaks and Bretton Woods. Following the Crimea Conference President Roosevelt stated that the San Francisco Conference called for April 25 would use the Dumbarton Oaks proposals in considering plans for setting up a world organization. The Bretton Woods monetary and banking proposals, however, are being strongly criticized in some quarters, especially by some bankers. Yet, it is maintained by friends of world organization, failure to accept proposals such as those made at Bretton Woods will ruin the chances for the constitution of a successful world organization.

The Bretton Woods agreement proposed two principal instruments, an International Bank and an International Monetary Fund to stabilize international exchange. The bank is acceptable, but the American Bankers' Association has opposed the Fund as constituted at Bretton Woods, although not all its members agree with its statement. Many thoughtful people regard the Fund as indispensable to a world organization.

In *The New Republic* for February 26 Alvin H. Hansen discussed "Isolation or Bretton Woods," in the fourth of the Harris-Hansen series on "The Price of Prosperity," to which references were made here in the issues of the last two months. Dr. Hansen, like so many others, holds that full employment is a necessary condition to successful international cooperation. Under modern circumstances no large country can make its contribution to the international economy without full employment, internal stability, and a high income level. There must be a program of full employment in the advanced industrial countries and also of economic development and industrialization in the backward countries.

Foreign trade, as many point out, can promote full employment. Lending and investing abroad are essential to the development and industrialization of backward countries. Here the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development would play an important role. This bank is the principal subject of Dr. Hansen's article.

The view is becoming more and more widespread that backward countries should not remain economic colonies. The Bretton Woods proposal that the International Bank have a capital of about nine billion dollars, of which this country would subscribe about one-third, means that a large fund would be available for investment purposes, for reconstruction, and for developing retarded regions. The bank, says Dr. Hansen, is a brilliant contrivance, and he describes how it would work as a world lending agency. It would issue bonds of its own and would guarantee

those of governments and private enterprises in capital-surplus nations like our own. The bank would be the instrument through which all member nations would underwrite and guarantee the bonds, which should therefore be a high-grade investment, particularly attractive to Americans. Dr. Hansen compared the way the International Bank would function with the work of the FHA in mortgage financing in this country.

The bank would not compete with private lending and investing agencies but rather would supplement and aid them by opening up profitable private outlets in backward areas. Nor would the bank supersede the American Export-Import Bank. "The International Bank is intended to be a lender of last resort. It will supplement, not supplant, private and government lending."

More public attention has been given to the proposals made at Dumbarton Oaks than to those made at Bretton Woods, probably because matters of international finance seem too difficult for the layman to understand. If the success of world organization depends in part upon the successful solution of international finance problems, it is important to give wide publicity to such popularly written articles as this one of Dr. Hansen's.

#### FULL EMPLOYMENT

This title embraces two important articles in *Survey Graphic* for March. The British plan of Sir William Beveridge is explained in "What Beveridge Proposes." The analysis is made by Maxwell S. Stewart, editor of the Public Affairs Pamphlets. The American plan, embodied in the Full Employment Bill of 1945 which is now in Congress, is described in "From Patchwork to Purpose," by Leon H. Keyserling, general counsel of the National Housing Agency.

Both plans aim to preserve private enterprise. Each is geared into the nation's existing business structure. Both assume that government must work with business and labor and agriculture to meet the problem. Sir William apparently wrote with the United States no less than Britain in mind. His observations and proposals are therefore of practical interest to Americans.

These articles are beyond the grasp of high school pupils but will be of value to teachers of socio-economic problems.

#### GERMANY

Immediately following these articles is the second of Professor Shotwell's articles on "Bridges to the Future," referred to here last month. He discusses "What Shall We Do About Germany?" His generalizations about the history of western civilization and

his observations on the role of war in history should not be missed by teachers.

In the light of his observations he suggests what to do with Germany. He urges that German militarism and Nazism be utterly destroyed but that Germany be neither dismembered nor ruined industrially. If we can provide peace and a world organization to maintain it and can preserve and spread freedom and democracy, Germany herself will learn from the object lesson. His discussion shows that there is no easy way and no simple and easy answer to the German problem.

#### BRITAIN NOW AND TOMORROW

George Soule, well-known *New Republic* editor, began a series of articles on "America and Britain after Victory" with his first report from London on "The British Temper," in the March 5 issue. It is difficult for us on this side of the Atlantic to realize the temper of Britons who have for years been living in war's midst and who realize full well that they alone stemmed the tide of Hitlerism until we and Russia joined them.

Mr. Soule tells of the little things he saw in London, indicative of war time and war temper: the masses sleeping nightly in the subways; shattered walls and bombed dwellings; fuelless homes with cardboard windows; powder-and-water milk, and almost universal shortages in consumer goods; the endless human queues for buses, movies, trains; the ever-present peril of bombs, like lightning in the summer storm. Mr. Soule gives us the feel of war-harried England.

The second of his articles was on "Postwar Britain at Home," in the issue of March 12. Britons, like all peoples, view their foreign relations through the glass of domestic affairs. The major domestic problems with which even now the British are wrestling are those of social security, health, housing, land nationalization, education, and full employment. Mr. Soule tells briefly what proposals are before the people and are being debated in Parliament.

British plans and actions will arouse keen interest in this country and will likely affect our own plans for the future. The drift toward socialization in England, as described by Mr. Soule, is an important fact for Americans. He points out, however, that the British domestic plans will have to be geared into her foreign trade, since she is dependent upon imports. This matter is the subject of Mr. Soule's third article, in the issue of March 19.

#### PEACETIME CONSCRIPTION

Hanson W. Baldwin, Annapolis graduate, is the well-known Military Editor of the *New York Times*. In *Harper's Magazine* for March he made a thor-



ough, brilliant analysis of the question of "Conscription for Peacetime?" His long essay weighed all the principal arguments, and found them wanting, some more than others: the health argument, the moral, citizenship, and educational arguments, the political, and economic, and various international arguments.

Of course the purpose of conscription is not to promote health, discipline, morals, education, citizenship, relieve unemployment, or otherwise relieve the family, the church, the business, the school, the medical profession, or any social institution of its obligations. Youth conscripted for a year's training will not provide us with a service army, for in that time youth cannot be trained adequately, then serve abroad where needed, and be back home in time for return to civil life. The service army will have to consist of those who enlist for several years. What useful purpose will be discharged by the conscripted youth, whose training will be increasingly outmoded as their year of training recedes, beyond the power of any brief refresher course to bring them up to date?

Our geographical position makes the air and naval arms our first line of defense. With strong air and naval arms, we shall have time to train land forces when needed. Mr. Baldwin is solaced by this fact and is not stampeded in favor of conscription. Nor is he convinced that it is worthless. In his long essay he examines many sides of the question and in the end he withholds a final decision. He counsels against precipitate Congressional action and urges study of the problem by a competent, civil commission as the preliminary fact-finding instrument for building the right policy. Mr. Baldwin's essay should not be missed.

*Social Science* for April made a fine contribution to this debate. The entire issue is a "Universal Compulsory Training Number." Ten articles, including the lengthy, informative "Editorial Preface," canvassed many phases of the question. In conclusion are printed the texts of the several bills on compulsory military training which failed of passage in the last Congress and the text of the May-Gurney Bill, now pending (H.R. 515 and S. 188).

#### SOCIAL FUNCTION OF RACE PREJUDICE

Hortense Powdermaker of Queens College (New York) is a well-known anthropologist. In *Social Action* for February 15, her article on "An Anthropologist Looks at the Race Question" is particularly helpful for its account of the value of prejudice.

First, Professor Powdermaker lists the principal facts about race which science has uncovered. They are familiar enough now and point to the fact that innate race superiority is a myth.

Most of her discussion dealt with the social function of prejudice. Race prejudice as such is not

excusable. But it must be noted that those who exhibit prejudice use it to satisfy genuine needs. That is why prejudice is shown even by people who *know* better. Prejudice is the traditional social avenue by which people compensate for a sense of economic insecurity, or for a sense of emotional insecurity, or it is the established channel through which people work off accumulated frustrations and hostilities.

These are familiar psychological phenomena since we all have our economic and emotional insecurities and our frustrations. Such familiar prejudices as the objection to widening employment opportunities to so-called inferior peoples, Jim Crowism, and race riots illustrate these three phenomena. People, craving security and outlet for their frustrations, will use the way of age-old prejudices to meet their need unless society provides better ways.

Dr. Powdermaker, in conclusion, discusses some of the ways to make society uncongenial to racial prejudice, ways involving economic, religious, and social reform. The road is long and complicated, involving the whole social fabric; prejudice will survive for many years. This exposition by a competent anthropologist is illuminating.

#### TEACHERS' WORKSHOPS

The workshop idea can be usefully adapted by schools to promote teacher cooperation. Many school problems will yield their solutions more quickly when attacked by teachers working together, along the lines now familiar in workshops. This approach is explored in the February number of *Educational Leadership*.

The various articles set forth what might be done and detail actual instances of the use of the workshop idea in schools. Sometimes it was used also by parents and teachers and by teacher-training institutions and schools. The philosophy and procedures of workshops are described. North and South, rural community and urban—all are called upon for their contribution to a number that has much indeed to offer.

#### RAISING THE SCHOOL-LEAVING AGE

With the war there came an increase in child labor. Just a year ago a quarter of a million children, fourteen and fifteen years of age, were out of school and gainfully employed. The example of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, which set a standard with its sixteen-year limit for workers in interstate commerce industries, stirred only a few legislatures to follow suit. While only fifteen states have a sixteen-year limit on their statute books, all but five of them provide nullifying exceptions. Thirty-three states have a limit at fifteen or less, including Wyoming, which imposes no minimum age for employment.

Since forty-two state legislatures are in session this year, a campaign is on to secure legislation to improve existing child-labor and compulsory school-attendance laws, and bills are now pending in many of them. To aid those engaged in this campaign the National Child Labor Committee (419 Fourth Avenue, New York City 16) has published a little descriptive pamphlet, "The Case for Sixteen Year Employment Laws" (Publication No. 392, February, 1945). Organizations and individuals desiring copies should address the committee. In addition, in the February issue of its monthly, *The American Child*, the committee presented a summary of the pending child-labor and compulsory-education bills ("The Legislative Front").

#### LOCAL HISTORY

Dr. Edward P. Alexander has long been a student of local history. He is the director of the Wisconsin Historical Society and recently completed his term as president of the American Association for State and Local History. In the leading article in the January-March number of *Michigan History Magazine* he suggested many ways for "Getting the Most Out of Local History."

The trend toward social and cultural history, as well as political and economic history, enhances the importance of local history. Social processes are exemplified in local history rather than in government capitols. The youthful researcher can try his wings in local research. These are but a few of the values of local history as Dr. Alexander presented them. A very large part of his essay discussed the organizing and workings of a local historical society, with which he has been closely identified. He has many practical suggestions to make for establishing a flourishing historical society.

#### SOCIAL STUDIES ROUND TABLE COMMITTEE

As a result of the discussions at the annual meeting of the Pennsylvania Social Studies Round Table, held last Christmas, a committee has been appointed to study the problems of social studies teachers in the state, with particular reference to uniformity of courses and the proper year of high school to present them. The committee is expected to report its recommendations at the next annual meeting in December, 1945. The members of the committee are: Norman C. Brillhart, Reading High School; Shelby Erwin, McKeesport High School; Arthur D. Graeff, Overbrook High School, Philadelphia; J. Ira Kreider, Abington High School; Lillie Lee Nixon, Board of Education, Pittsburgh; John W. Ray, Academy High

School, Erie; Robert D. Wilson, Waymart High School.

#### AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK

American Education Week will be celebrated this year during the week beginning November 11. Sponsoring it are the National Education Association, the American Legion, the United States Office of Education, and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, in cooperation with other national, state, and local groups.

The program for the week is built around the following theme and topics:

Education to Promote the General Welfare

Sunday, November 11—Emphasizing Spiritual Values

Monday, November 12—Finishing the War

Tuesday, November 13—Securing the Peace

Wednesday, November 14—Improving Economic Wellbeing

Thursday, November 15—Strengthening Home Life

Friday, November 16—Developing Good Citizens

Saturday, November 17—Building Sound Health

#### "THE READER'S DIGEST"

Entirely new in journalism and in periodicals used in schools, *The Reader's Digest* every month, in its School Edition, prints lists of Background Readings that direct pupils and teachers to all current articles on controversial subjects mentioned in that magazine. Those articles represent all attitudes and all shades of thought. Such reading references lead to vigorous and well-formed classroom discussions, the proponents of any particular point of view having full opportunity to gain ammunition for spirited defense.

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This year, as in the preceding eight years, *The Reader's Digest* offers a one-year honorary subscription, free of charge, to the valedictorian in each of the 30,000 and more public, private and parochial high schools in the United States and Canada.

# Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by RICHARD H. McFEELY

The George School, George School, Pennsylvania

*Winter Wheat in the Golden Belt of Kansas: A Study of Adaption to Subhumid Geographical Environment.* By James C. Malin. Lawrence: University of Kansas Press, 1944. Pp. 290. \$3.00.

The principal focus of this study is Riley, Geary, Dickinson, and Saline counties in Kansas. Agriculturally they constitute a transition country with wheat dominating in the western part. The history of crops and livestock, the evolution of the methods of cultivation, the development of machinery adapted to the area's particular needs, and the factors leading to change are traced in detail by clearly defined periods from 1855 to 1902. Special attention is given to the part played by improved machinery and to the ultimate triumph of hard winter wheat as the main crop. Of general interest also is the fact that Professor Malin was unable to locate any sources to substantiate fully the tradition that the Mennonites were the first to introduce Turkey red winter wheat in Kansas.

The volume is a segment of a larger study which has been Professor Malin's main research interest for over a decade. He has been investigating community areas that represent variations in the main agricultural regions of Kansas with a view to providing bases for generalizations. His chief attention has been focused on the history of farming operations and the adaptations of the agricultural systems to various environments. The main source of data for his series of studies is local newspapers.

The methodology and contents of this volume have great importance and significance for local and agricultural history. It is an outstanding example of a local history contributing to a comprehension of the national scene. It also provides the data needed for the careful delineation of the history of American agriculture, because no accurate overall summary of this subject can be prepared until delineations of the actual year-by-year development of farming and rural life in small areas representative of the main agricultural regions are available. Professor Malin's studies not only point the way but contribute greatly to that end.

EVERETT E. EDWARDS

U. S. Department of Agriculture  
Washington, D.C.

*Adapting Instruction in the Social Studies to Individual Differences.* Edited by Edward Krug and G. Lester Anderson. Washington, D.C.: Na-

tional Council for the Social Studies, 1944. Pp. vi, 156. \$2.00.

Nothing could be more timely and stimulating for the social studies teacher than this symposium on the theme of "individual differences." Although it says nothing about the war crisis, post-war planning or the causes for which we fight, this is really a scientific reassertion that in ever greater democracy lies the hope of a better society. It does so in calling our attention to the supreme factor of any society—the individual. In these days of masses, sizes and organizations, we are prone to lose sight of the potentialities embodied in *one* person. In this discussion, authorities like Krug, Anderson, Hanna, and Jenson, analyzing the complexity we call "a personality," find there not only "difficulties" but also "opportunities." To be sure, this challenging view of the individual student in the classroom is stern. It is formidable because: 1) individuals differ from each other in many areas of life; 2) the individual's differences are constantly taking on new meanings as he moves on toward maturity and mingles in ever-widening circles.

The extent of individual differences is very carefully described by Lavone Hanna. The description is graphically portrayed in a series of tables taken from the studies of the Progressive Education Association.

Although the title is suggestive of a "rehashing" of educational theory, the classroom teacher will find here a fine blending of educational philosophy and practice. Fifteen educators from various parts of the United States have contributed their philosophies and experiences on certain phases of this problem. They *differ* on the relative merits of procedures. They are *agreed* on the end—a more worthwhile individual with more harmonious social relationships. They are agreed that much more can be done than has been done.

After spending the first three chapters on the underlying educational psychology, the editors have the readers look through the searching eyes of a classroom teacher: What can be done about individual differences in the elementary grades? What of the relative merits of homogeneous and heterogeneous groupings as procedure? With what success has the "core program" been used as an approach to dealing with individual differences? In answer to the latter question, Gladys Smith contributes her



experiences as gained from experimentation at the Carbondale (Illinois) Laboratory School.

Harriet S. Cutter describes the way a program for "slow learners" has been developed in Cleveland, Ohio. The rapid student-slow student program as worked out at George School, Pennsylvania, is explained by Richard H. McFeely and Walter H. Mohr. With what instructional aids and techniques can the teacher handle the individual differences of his pupils?

Five chapters are devoted to such related subjects as "non-verbal instructional materials," "audio-visual aids," "community resources," "teaching study skills," and "teaching critical thinking." What, by and large, have state and local courses of study and syllabi been advocating as desirable approaches to the meeting of individual differences in the various social studies courses? A survey of what the curriculum makers have been recommending is made by Charles R. Spain.

This volume will probably evoke disagreement as to the feasibility of certain procedures. The editors submit this volume for its thought-provoking value. It is not expected to solve any problems of the social studies teacher. It does take all teachers (whether of social studies or not) to some commonly agreed and highly significant starting points. Information and suggestions are provided for the teacher who is willing to plan and experiment, think and act. In that thinking and acting the artist teacher will solve the problem of individual differences, not once, but many times; for, where there is growth, nothing is ever finally solved.

JOHN C. APPEL

Newtown Borough High School  
Newtown, Pennsylvania

*Cartels: Challenge to a Free World.* By Wendell Berge. Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Press, 1944. Pp. vi, 266. \$3.25.

History teachers who want their pupils to understand the workings of monopolies and cartels will find this volume, written by Wendell Berge, Assistant Attorney General of the United States in charge of the Anti-trust division, a very helpful addition to the materials already available. The author has had years of experience, first as Thurman Arnold's chief assistant and now in his present capacity, in studying the economic effects of cartels and prosecuting the violators of the present laws of the United States.

The author's point of view in regard to the influence of cartels on a free world is stated in the preface from which the following quote is taken:

The end of the war will find us on the threshold of the greatest technical and scientific developments in history. Light metals, plastics, tele-

vision, new chemical and electrical techniques are but a few of the instruments which will furnish the stuff for the pioneers of a new age. The challenge of housing will excite bold minds to action, on a scale never before attempted, to wipe out slums and give dwellers in country and city alike a new and higher standard of living. Not only at home, but also abroad, the opportunities for daring enterprise which will be offered by the needs of world reconstruction will surpass anything ever before known.

How are we going to meet this challenge? At the outset, we must face frankly the greatest obstacle to making the most of our opportunity. It is the threat of cartel control of major world industries. Unless this threat is understood and dealt with decisively, our opportunity to realize the great potential benefits of a free economy will be lost. And worse still, the hope of maintaining democratic political institutions will be seriously impaired.

The author does not merely inveigh against the pernicious effects of such international combinations, he gives in some detail specific information about the operation of particular cartels, with direct quotations from letters, memoranda and other documents which he has had at his disposal and which he has used in his testimony before congressional committees, trade associations, and civic groups that have been interested in this important problem. Though not a complete source book on the problem, it is carefully documented.

The list of chapter headings will give the reader some insight into the scope of the book: Trusts to Cartels; Enterprise Eclipsed; Technology; Patents; Medicines; Synthetic Hormones; Vitamins; Quebracho Extract; Titanium; Optical Instruments; Miscellaneous Products; The Webb Act; Private Governments; Freedom or Control. In addition, Appendix I: Recent Cases; and Appendix II: Bibliography, give much other useful materials. The book has a very complete index which adds to its usefulness as a reference book.

This reviewer has used the book with a senior class of students studying American history and elementary economics. He has found that the students could read most of it and understand it, and gained insight into the present governmental position toward monopolies and cartels, and the fact that it brought the issues right up to date made the study of these subjects much more vital and real.

If cartels present the threat to world freedom that the author postulates, then all citizens, both adults and the more youthful, should become familiar with the problem and the steps being taken or those that

should be taken to curb them. If, however, they are not such a serious threat as is maintained by some, then all citizens should at least be familiar with the arguments that are stated so cogently in this stimulating, informative little volume.

*The Young Mr. Jefferson, 1743-1789.* By Claude G. Bowers. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1945. Pp. xxx, 544. \$3.75.

There are few, if any, figures that parade across the stage before students of American history of greater interest or of more significance than Thomas Jefferson. His contributions to American democracy were great, and in a period when we need to know and understand the basic principles of democratic living, few lives are studied with greater profit than that of Jefferson. His vision, his courage, his insight, his practical experiences, his devotion to the causes of the young nation dedicated to a new way of life serve to inspire young people in a period when so many of them are not sure of the things they should live for, the causes they should serve.

About twenty years ago, Claude Bowers brought out his first volume of this trilogy, *Jefferson and Hamilton* in which he covered the period of Jefferson's life from 1789 to his election as President in 1800. Some years later the second volume, *Jefferson in Power*, told the story of Jefferson's efforts to carry out the mandates of the electors in 1800, and to insure that the government of this young nation would be democratic rather than an aristocratic republic. This, the third volume, tells of Thomas Jefferson from birth to 1789. In many ways it is more clearly a biography than the other two, but the three give a very comprehensive, interesting picture of the career of one of America's greatest statesmen.

This is the type of biography that teachers welcome because students enjoy reading it. The story is well-told, the choice of anecdotes is good and does much to enrich the account with source materials, and the personality of the main character is skillfully drawn by an artist who is sensitive to the real worth of others.

Obviously, this is not the definitive study of Jefferson that will emerge from the study being made at Princeton, but it is a biography that will be widely read as its merits become known to more and more people.

*Land of the Free.* By Homer Carey Hockett and Arthur M. Schlesinger. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1944. Pp xxviii, 765.

Teachers must exert caution in selecting from among the many that have been written suitable textbooks for courses in American history. Hence, when a new textbook in the field comes from the

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press, many questions are asked, and judgments concerning the place it will fill and its unique contributions are made.

A book like this, written by two eminent scholars, deserves careful appraisal. That it has been written by these men gives clear testimony to the accuracy and authenticity of the materials it contains. The book is solid, scholarly, readable, and objective. That it is in one volume adds to its usefulness as a basic text for high school use.

Closer examination shows that the book gives a comprehensive, rather detailed, very clear account of the story it is telling. It is interesting to note that, in contrast to many older volumes, the colonial period is given only about fifty pages of space, whereas over 150 pages are devoted to the period from 1914 to 1943. The authors have purposely given the largest part of the book to the period from the Civil War to the present, and have given special emphasis to the social and cultural history of this period. Their selection of anecdotal materials enhances the pictures they are presenting to the students by heightening the interest and enlivening the discussion.

As a basic textbook this reviewer believes that some may equal but none will excel it for secondary school pupils. Each chapter has an ample bibliography selected and divided so that a pupil may

readily find good supplementary materials to enrich the use of the text. There are numerous maps, pictures and charts, and a good index which makes for easy cross-referencing.

This is an excellent book and deserves wide adoption in our schools.

*The Science of Man in the World Crisis.* Edited by Ralph Linton. New York: Columbia University Press, 1945. Pp. xiv, 532. \$4.00.

There are probably no problems facing Americans upon which it is more difficult to get unprejudiced, objective, careful thinking than those dealing with racial and ethnic groups. Likewise, there are probably no problems which face us now and will increase in importance in the post-war period which are more important, and upon which so much accurate information will be needed in order to reach intelligent "solutions." There are some who, recognizing how critical these problems are and how difficult it is to secure unbiased thinking on them, are already predicting that World War III is inevitable and will be fought with the tinted peoples of the world on one side and the "white" people on the other. Others are predicting dire times ahead in this country because of our persistent refusal to face our undemocratic attitudes and restrictions which keep the Negroes, the Chinese, the Japanese-Americans from economic, political, and cultural opportunities. Whatever position one takes with regard to these predictions, one cannot avoid the recognition of the seriousness of the problems, and the great need for accurate information and unemotional thinking about them. In such cases, one inevitably turns to the findings of science for help, and it is for this reason that teachers and laymen alike should familiarize themselves with this book in which a group of anthropologists have brought together the most recent findings of the students of man and his origins.

This brilliant series of papers, written by such men as John Dollard, A. Irving Hallowell, Otto Klineberg, Ralph Linton, Harry L. Shapiro, Louis Wirth and many other equally able scientists and writers, throws a penetrating light upon some of the prevalent misconceptions of "race," and the theories of the "race determinists." The reader will also find discussed some of the problems of "culture," cultural variations, and cultural lag. Also discussed are such problems as the distribution of populations, colonial administration, the handling of minority groups, the possibilities for the acquisition of new ways of social behavior, and trends in nationalism and internationalism.

These papers give an excellent background for a study of certain of the outstanding conflicts that are disrupting civilization today. They provide the scientific bases for thinking through some of the most

critical problems confronting us. Without some such understanding of the potentialities and limitations of their human material, the builders of world order are doomed to almost certain failure.

This reviewer knows of no other book that brings together the most recent findings and theories in the field of anthropology in such an interesting, clearly-written, informative manner. It should be on the bookshelf of all social studies teachers, social workers, ministers, and others who are dealing with national, racial, religious, and socio-economic problems. The contents of many of the papers should be among the working knowledge of all who are dealing with human problems. It is, on the whole, too difficult for the average high school student to use, but through the teacher it can find a very useful place in the classroom.

*Education for all American Youth.* By the Educational Policies Commission. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1944. Pp. 421. \$1.00.

What about education in the post-war period? What sorts of schools will be built? What changes in the curriculum should be planned in an effort to meet the needs of youth in a period of great stress and change? Should a different plan be adopted rather than continue to divide the school years on an 8-4 or a 6-3-3 basis? How can American schools and teachers meet the needs of all of our youth, and fulfill the demands of society?

Such questions as these challenge all who are actually engaged in or who are deeply interested in our educational system. It is to help answer such questions that the Educational Policies Commission has published this forthright book, a book that will rank with an earlier volume, *Learning the Ways of Democracy*, and which deserves the same careful reading by educators and laymen as they think through the problems that face us.

The Educational Policies Commission states in unequivocal terms its opposition to a federalized system of secondary education. It believes that the nation will be best served by a system initiated, directed and supported by the local and state educational authorities. However, if the latter proves inadequate to the times, the Commission recognizes that federal subsidy and control may be necessary and factors with which to be coped.

Two hypothetical school systems are pictured in concrete, practical terms. One is for youth in the rural areas, and the other for the city boys and girls. The account is "written" by an observer about five years after World War II ends. Both school systems are based upon the assumption that pupils can be better educated by going through fourteen grades rather than the traditional twelve. Both set forth



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4. The Consumer and the Cost of Distribution

#### Part II. CONSUMER PROTECTION

5. Legal Regulations of Buying and Selling
6. Government Agencies That Aid and Protect the Consumer
7. Private Agencies That Aid and Protect the Consumer
8. The Consumer Aids and Protects Himself

#### Part III. SELECTION AND CHOICE MAKING

9. Interpreting Advertising
10. Interpreting Standards, Grades, and Labels
11. The Consumer Makes Mistakes in Buying
12. Some General Principles of Buying
13. Getting the Most for the Food Dollar

#### Part IV. MAKING SPECIFIC PURCHASES

14. How to Buy Packaged Foods
15. How to Buy Perishable Foods
16. How to Buy Fabrics, Clothing, and Shoes
17. How to Buy Appliances and Automobiles
18. How to Buy Furniture and Rugs
19. How to Buy Drugs, Cosmetics, Soap, and Dentifrices

#### Part V. USING BANKS AND CREDIT

20. How Banks Operate
21. Using Your Bank
22. Buying on Short-Term Credit
23. Buying on the Installment Plan
24. Obtaining Small Loans

#### Part VI. PERSONAL FINANCE

25. How to Keep Personal and Family Budgets
26. How to Keep Personal and Family Records
27. How to Save Your Money
28. Planning Your Investment Program
29. Select Your Investments Carefully

#### Part VII. INSURANCE PROTECTION

30. Buying Insurance Protection
31. Features of Life Insurance
32. How to Buy Insurance
33. Social Security

#### Part VIII. OBTAINING A HOME

34. Renting or Buying a Home
35. Financing the Purchase of a Home
36. Legal Problems of Obtaining a Home

#### Part IX. ECONOMIC PROBLEMS OF CONSUMERS

37. Relation of Money, Wealth, and Income
38. How We Share Our Income and Wealth
39. The Functions of Money and Credit
40. How Prices are Established
41. How Business Conditions and Prices Affect Us
42. The Consumer Buys Service with Taxes
43. The Consumer's Stake in Conservation

certain common cores of knowledge about which, it is assumed, all American youth need to know something. For example, they believe that our boys and girls need to know something about democracy, its history, basic assumptions, present status in America and the like. They believe that the schools of the future must do more in the field of vocational guidance and training, and correlating work experiences with classroom work. Information about home and family life is needed. These are just some of the areas in which all American youth should have enlightenment and help.

In addition there is an interesting discussion of the comprehensive youth educational program of Columbia, the state in which these two "schools" are located.

The authors of this readable, stimulating little volume do not present a blueprint to be copied blindly by all communities or school systems. They do present basic principles and some important assumptions which could serve as criteria by which any teacher or group of teachers, principals, supervisors, or other adults interested in American Education can appraise what they are now doing, and make adjustments in their programs if such seem desirable.

This reviewer agrees with the fundamental reasoning of the Educational Policies Commission about the great desirability of keeping control of the schools in local or state hands, and recognizes with them the great need for beginning to plan now for the post-war years. Social studies teachers especially will find this book provocative, and especially worth reading in conjunction with the recent publication by the National Council for the Social Studies: "The Social Studies Look Beyond the War."

#### PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

*Scottish Diplomats: 1689-1789.* By D. B. Horn. London, Eng.: P. S. King & Staples Limited, 1944. Pp. 18.

Historical Association Publications, No. 132.

*The Social Studies Look Beyond the War.* By the National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: The National Council for the Social Studies, 1944. Pp. 40. 10 cents.

A statement of post-war policy prepared by an Advisory Commission of the National Council for the Social Studies.

#### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

*The American Story.* By Ruth Wood Gavian and William A. Hamm. Boston: D. C. Heath and

Company, 1945. Pp. viii, 664. Illustrated. \$2.48.

Designed for the senior high school. Well illustrated and contains well-planned teaching aids.

*Story of Nations.* By Lester B. Rogers, Fay Adams and Walker Brown. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1945. Pp. xxiii, 814, xx. Illustrated. \$2.60.

A revision of a well-known textbook in world history.

*Social Work Year Book, 1945: A Description of Organized Activities in Social Work and in Related Fields.* Edited by Russell H. Kurtz. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1945. Pp. 620. \$3.25.

The eighth issue of a concise description of organized activities in social work and related fields.

*The Generals and the Admirals: Some Leaders of the United States Forces in World War II.* Biographies by the Editors of *Newsweek*. New York: The Devin-Adair Company, 1945. Pp. 62. Illustrated. \$4.50.

Biographies and portraits of thirty noted generals and admirals of the United States. Portraits by T. H. Chamberlain.

*Our American Neighbors.* Prepared by the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs. Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Press, 1945. Pp. 280. Illustrated. \$3.00.

A readable survey of our Latin-American neighbors. Illustrated with pictures, maps, graphs, and charts. A publication of the American Council on Public Affairs.

*Emeralds for the King.* By Constance Savery. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1945. Pp. x, 270. Illustrated. \$2.00.

A historical novel about the time of Charles I and Cromwell.

*Arrow Fly Home.* By Katharine Gibson. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1945. Pp. ix, 146. Illustrated. \$2.00.

A story of Indians and white settlers, of hunts and war paths and new trails.

*Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1944. Pp. x, 492. \$3.00.

Published for the National Conference of Social Work. Selected papers of the 75th Annual Meeting, held in Cleveland, Ohio, May 21-27, 1944.